

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 032 326

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TE 499 920

History of Africa. Topic 2. Africa South of the Sahara: An Experimental Program of Study for Secondary School Social Studies Students. Teaching and Student Guides.

Carnegie-Mellon Univ., Pittsburgh, Pa. Project Africa.

Spons Agency-Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research.

Bureau No-BR-7-0724

Pub Date 69

Contract-OEC-3-7-070724-2970

Note-249p.

Available from-ERIC Clearinghouse on the Teaching of English, 508 So. Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 61820 (on loan only)

EDRS Price MF-\$1.00 HC Not Available from EDRS.

Descriptors-*African Culture, *African History, Area Studies, Community Characteristics, Cultural Factors, Cultural Traits, Environmental Influences, Ethnic Groups, History Instruction, Secondary Education, *Social Studies Units, *Socioeconomic Influences, Study Guides, *Teaching Guides, Teaching Methods

Identifiers-*Africa, Project Africa

An historical perspective on the social, political, and economic events of the past which were instrumental in shaping modern Africa is presented in this curriculum program. Contained in the teaching guide and student text are units on (1) prehistoric Africa and the mystery of the Zimbabwe kingdom, (2) pre-twentieth century black African kingdoms, (3) the slave trade and its effect on African development, (4) the impact of European colonialism on the African peoples, and (5) the growth of African nationalism and African independence. The teacher's guide contains detailed lesson plans, suggestions for classroom procedure, lists of instructional aids and guides for using them, maps, glossaries, and student study guides. The student text contains specific background information on the history of Africa and recommended reading selections. [Not available in hard copy due to marginal legibility of original document.] (MP)

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AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

A TEACHING GUIDE

TOPIC II

An Experimental Program Of Study For
Secondary School Social Studies Students

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE

OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

An Experimental Program of Study For
Secondary School Social Studies Students

TOPIC II

HISTORY OF AFRICA

PROJECT AFRICA

Carnegie-Mellon University
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

1969

NOTE

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* * * * *

This is only one of the series of booklets which contain the instructional materials and teaching guides developed by Project Africa for use in teaching about Africa south of the Sahara to students in grades 7-10 in American schools. The complete set of booklets includes:

1. Africa South of the Sahara - Introduction: A Teaching Guide
2. Africa South of the Sahara - Topic I: A Teaching Guide
3. Peoples of Africa South of the Sahara
4. Africa South of the Sahara - Topic II: A Teaching Guide
5. History of Africa South of the Sahara
6. Africa South of the Sahara - Topic III: A Teaching Guide
7. Changing Africa South of the Sahara

INTRODUCTION

This instructional program was developed by the staff and consultants of Project Africa, a social studies curriculum development project commissioned by the United States Office of Education. This project was originally located at The Ohio State University. It was moved to Pittsburgh's Carnegie-Mellon University in September 1968.

Project Africa was created on March 1, 1967. It was a 40-month project designed specifically to develop inquiry-oriented instructional materials and guides for use in improving learning about Africa south of the Sahara in grades 7-12 of American schools. The instructional materials contained herein were the first of a number of such materials intended for use in teaching about Africa south of the Sahara in 7-10th grade world geography, world history or world cultures courses. They represent the results of extensive research during the summer and fall of 1967 and of limited classroom try-outs during the spring of 1968.

These materials are in the form submitted to nation-wide field testing during the 1969 spring semester. By examining and adapting them to their own situations local schools will thus be able to include a vital, up-to-date, stimulating study of Africa south of the Sahara, its peoples and their culture as an integral part of their secondary school social studies curricula.

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These materials represent the results of the initial phase of Project Africa. They are only approximations of finished instructional materials and should be subject to extensive revision and refinement. It was the purpose of the classroom tryouts--for which these were prepared--to provide the experience and information needed to develop effective and worthwhile materials for use in teaching about Africa south of the Sahara in 7-10th grade social studies programs. The evaluation of the results of this experimentation is included in the Final Report of Project Africa (1970).

Dr. Barry K. Beyer
Director

Dr. E. Perry Hicks
Associate Director

Summer 1969

USING THE TEACHING GUIDES

Each teaching guide for this program on Africa south of the Sahara is organized along similar lines.

For every major unit there are introductory comments, a statement of general unit objectives and a brief outline of the daily activities which comprise it. Each daily activity has a separate plan which includes a statement of its purpose; a list of more specific knowledge, skill and affective objectives; and an outline of the strategy to be used in conducting the activity. These are printed on yellow paper.

The teaching strategy outlined for each daily activity is divided into two columns. The left-hand column contains the key questions or directions for the main activities required to move toward accomplishing the objectives of the activity. Not every question a teacher may wish or need to ask is included here. Others may have to be asked in order to secure useful or desired responses.

The right hand column contains the substance of the student responses or statements sought for each of the questions in the left-hand column. It is not intended that these be the word-for-word or only statements the students will make. But they do represent the substance of the desired student responses. These items should be viewed as the goals of the teacher questions and, if the question in the left-hand column fails to elicit a response containing the substance of this entry, then the teacher will have to ask other questions designed to elicit this information. These desired responses are included here so that the teacher will know what the students need to articulate in order to move on to the next part of the activity.

It is obvious that the teaching strategies and techniques outlined in these guides are not the only ones that could be used in teaching for these objectives. However, they do represent one useful instructional strategy. As these strategies are used, you will undoubtedly find flaws in them and/or get ideas on how they could be improved. Write these ideas on separate pages and insert them in the guides or write them in appropriate places in the guides themselves. These comments will be useful in using these materials a second time.

The teaching guides also contain copies of all student materials not included in the booklets for distribution for use in preparing for the next class. By having them arranged in this fashion, you should find it easier to identify them.

CONTENTS

<u>Introduction</u>	i
 <u>Unit I</u>	
Africa Before 500 AD	1
 <u>Unit II</u>	
Black African Kingdoms	23
 <u>Unit III</u>	
The African Slave Trade	47
 <u>Unit IV</u>	
Africa Under European Rule	69
 <u>Unit V</u>	
African Independence	95
 <u>Conclusion</u>	 111

INTRODUCTION

THE HISTORY OF AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

The nature of Africa and its peoples cannot be entirely explained in terms of culture and environment alone. Something more is needed. Contemporary Africa, if it is to be correctly understood, must be viewed as a product of events, forces, influences and changes that have occurred over time. Thus, an understanding of how Africa came to be as it is as well as a clearer perception of just exactly what it really is requires a study of selected aspects of its history.

The study of the history of this region, however, is beset by several significant problems--problems that are not common to the study of the history of most other peoples or regions. The first is the very sparse number of written records on which an accurate and detailed story of its past can be reconstructed. Much of the history of Africa south of the Sahara can only be guessed at and some, indeed a considerable amount, may never even be known because of the destructive extremes of its climate and the nature of its early civilization. Much of what is known must be based on archaeological remains, linguistic analyses, a study of travel literature, oral tradition, art and accounts of peoples who in some way or other may have once had something to do with the peoples of Africa. Only for the most recent decades are written documents and records readily available.

A second problem is the fact that until very recently Africa history has been neither written nor interpreted by Africans. Instead, it has been reported by people foreign to the culture which they attempt to analyze and interpret. Consequently, much of written African history is distorted by personal or cultural biases, by ethnocentrism and even racial overtones. This is not to say there has been a deliberate conspiracy to destroy, subvert or misrepresent the history of Africa. But it is important to realize that especially in this instance the cultural background of the observer or writer has often led him to misinterpret, ignore or otherwise distort the real essence of his subject.

And this leads directly to the third problem--that of stereotypes. Probably no other peoples of the world are so erroneously stereotyped as are Africans. Much of this is, of course, a result of unconscious cultural bias; some is the result of ignorance or lack of information; and some is a product of generalizing too broadly on the basis of too little evidence. Whatever the cause, the existence of numerous stereotypes seriously handicaps an understanding of Africa. As Thomas Hodgkin has noted:

It is no doubt flattering to our vanity to imagine that the peoples of Africa were "primitive" and "barbarous" before the penetration of the Europeans, and that it is we who have "civilized" them. But it is a theory that lacks historical foundation. The Empire of Ghana flourished in what is now French West Africa during the dark ages of Western Europe. By the fifteenth century there was a university at Timbuktu. The Ashantis of the Gold Coast and the Yorubas of Nigeria possessed highly organized and complex civilizations long

before their territories were brought under British political and military control. The thesis that Africa is what Western European missionaries, traders, technicians and administrators have made it is comforting (to Western Europeans) but invalid. The eruption of Western European colonizers into Africa--with all the effects of their religion and their schools, their gin and guns, their cotton goods and their systems of administration--is only an event, though a very important event, in the history of the African peoples.

If, therefore, we wish to understand the national movements that have emerged in Africa--and have reached their most mature and advanced stage in West Africa--we have to begin by trying to rid our minds of the European misconceptions that influence our thinking on this subject. This is not easy, since most of the available material on African affairs is presented from a European standpoint either by imperial historians (who are interested in the record of European penetration into Africa), or by colonial administrators (who are interested in the pattern of institutions imposed by European governments upon African societies), or by anthropologists (who are often, though not always, mainly interested in the forms of social organization surviving in the simplest African communities, considered in isolation from political developments in the world around them.*

Africa south of the Sahara does indeed have a history and one that has very significantly shaped the way it is today. Its peoples never were completely isolated from the rest of the world. Rather, Africa today, its peoples and cultures are as much the product of contact and interchange with outside forces as of independent invention and internal evolution. It is the purpose of this topic to explore the nature of these forces and influences and assess the degree to which they may have shaped Africans as they are today.

Just as a geographer divides a land mass into regions in order to facilitate his inquiry, so the historian divides historical time into manageable parts. These parts he calls periods. Like a region, these periods are distinguished by some unique feature or features. For a historian, the distinguishing features are usually events or forces or some combination of these; major continuing events tend to uniquely influence virtually all aspects of the times in which they prevail.

The primary focus of Topic II is on those periods dominated by social, political or economic forces and events that have been instrumental in shaping the way Africa and its peoples are today. The emphasis, however,

* Thomas Hodgkin in the Highway (February 1952) cited in T. Walter Wallbank, ed., Documents on Modern Africa. Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc. 1964, pp. 115-116.

is not on the forces themselves. It is rather on the impact of these on people. This study is in essence an inquiry into how and why Africans got to be the way they are today. As such it is an effort to come to grips with contemporary Africa, to understand it in its own terms, to set it in a proper time perspective. And, in doing this, it is intended that the students develop generalizations and conceptual structures that will make more meaningful their subsequent studies of peoples of other regions and, ultimately, their perception of themselves, their own culture and life in this world in general.

As in TOPIC I, the general objectives here are:

To formulate concepts and generalizations about the development of Africa South of the Sahara and about cultural change in general;

To develop, practice and refine the skills of intellectual inquiry, the technology of learning; and

To clarify and develop attitudes and values supportive of these skills.

Because this study uses history as the media of learning, however, and because of the problems noted above that are peculiar to African history, it attempts to do even more. It provides an opportunity for students to develop the skills of evaluating historical data and validating historically-based conclusions. In a society such as ours, where the "lessons of history" are often cited in support of, or in opposition to, particular programs and policies, the ability to validate and weigh historical evidence and an appreciation of the limitations of historical arguments are essential requisites of effective citizenship. Because students will secure information as future citizens primarily via the written word or via pictures, maps and photographs, the skills needed to do this well are emphasized here. Thus, considerable attention is devoted in this unit to how one makes inferences from written data, distinguishes fact from opinion, detects bias, and recognizes unstated assumptions. Analysis of the role of frame of reference in conditioning the perception and reporting of experience also receives considerable attention here.

Study of TOPIC II will enable students:

To know the major events that have shaped the historical development of the peoples of Africa south of the Sahara.

To understand the impact of these on how people live, what they believe and what they are.

To understand the nature of historical change.

To understand such concepts as civilization, change, frame of reference, and ethnocentrism.

To develop a "feel" for Africa and its peoples--to develop empathy.

To evaluate historical data.

To develop and refine the skills of intellectual inquiry.

To develop a respect for evidence, objectivity and empathy as well as for receiving, responding and valuing.

Each unit in this topic is constructed on an inquiry-oriented teaching strategy and includes activities which require the students to:

- 1) Identify and clarify a purpose for learning.
- 2) Build a hypothesis--a tentative answer or solution.
- 3) Test the hypothesis against data.
- 4) Draw meaningful conclusions and apply them to new data.

The concluding activity is designed to bring the entire study to a meaningful conclusion and to set the stage for TOPIC III. It will provide the students opportunities to develop useful generalizations and to relate them to their own lives.

TOPIC II consists of five units

Unit I - Africa Before 500 A.D.

Unit II - Black African Kingdoms

Unit III - The African Slave Trade

Unit IV - Exploration and Partition

Unit V - Nationalism and Independence

AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

TOPIC II

UNIT I

AFRICA BEFORE 500 A.D.

A TEACHING GUIDE

PROJECT AFRICA

Carnegie-Mellon University

1969

UNIT I

AFRICA BEFORE 500 A.D.

A TEACHING GUIDE

This unit launches the study of Africa's past. Its primary purpose is to introduce the student to the major historical events in Africa south of the Sahara and to motivate him to inquire into them. The unit is preliminary to in-depth studies of Africa's more recent past--since 500 A.D. As such it seeks to stimulate the students to ask questions about the events and forces at work and their impact on the peoples of Africa during this time and today.

This unit is also an introduction to the nature of history and historical inquiry. Its study is designed to suggest the incompleteness of present-day knowledge about this region and its distant past; to show the relationship between archaeological, botanical, linguistic, and anthropological data and historical interpretation; and to suggest the difference between established facts and interpretive hypotheses. Above all, it is intended to suggest the tentativeness of what is known about Africa south of the Sahara and, in so doing, to perhaps motivate further student interest in this aspect of the history of the peoples of this region.

The major objectives for this unit are:

To stimulate further inquiry into the history of Africa south of the Sahara.

To know the major events that occurred in Africa south of the Sahara before 500 A.D.

To know that, in reality, little is known about this period of African history.

To ask questions.

To practice and refine the skills of intellectual inquiry.

This unit consists of four activities:

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Materials</u>
1	To introduce the major events of Africa's past	newspaper
2	To explore Africa's history before 500 A.D. and to make inferences from data	readings (2) data cards
3	To know the nature of African history	readings data cards
4	To summarize early African history and to provide a hypothesis for further inquiry	data cards mimeo, booklet

UNIT I

AFRICA BEFORE 500 A.D. - ACTIVITY 1

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: The purpose of this activity is to introduce students to the major events in Africa's past, events which have played a major role in shaping the way Africa and its peoples are today. This activity is also designed to challenge student-held stereotypes about the African past and to motivate students to ask questions about it which may serve as springboards to further study.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To recognize the broad sweep of Africa's past.

To recognize the major events in the history of the peoples of this region.

To make inferences from data.

To identify similarities and relationships in data.

To classify and categorize information.

To desire to investigate Africa's past more fully.

- B) Materials: The African World (newspaper)

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

-
- 1) Introduce this unit by having each student check his answers on the crossword puzzle (p.2 The African World) with a student sitting next to him. Where students are unable to agree on the correct answers, refer them to the articles (p.3) on the Ashanti and (p.1) on the price of brides. (Allow only 5 min. for this.)

(Should any questions arise refer to the answers to the crossword puzzle in NOTES TO THE TEACHER on the following pages.)

- 2) Have the students skim the headlines of all the articles. Starting on page 1, ask them to tell the topic of each article. List these on the board for all 4 pages.

The topics of the page 1 articles may be listed as:

price of brides
old cities
slavery
new nation
origin of man

- 3) Have the students suggest ways to group all these in 4 or 5 categories.

Categories they might suggest could be:

people - countries - history
or
economic - social - political
or
tribes - independence - religion
etc.

- 4) If students do not suggest that one way to group them is by periods in which they occurred, ask: HOW WOULD THEY BE GROUPED IN HISTORY?

Students may suggest:
Pre-history - distant past
Ancient
Slavery
Imperial period
Independence - present

To help in this, draw a time line on the board. Write DISTANT PAST at one end and PRESENT at the other. Have the students arrange the topics on the line in the order they occur in time.

Distant Past Present

Then draw lines between periods indicated by the topics. Have the students suggest labels for each period.

Distant Past

origin of man (Leaky article)	old cities Zimbabwe Queen of Sheba ANCIENT	etc.
PREHISTORIC		

Point out that these are the major periods of Africa's history.

- 5) Ask: WHAT IF ANYTHING IN THESE ARTICLES SURPRISED YOU? -- OR, DIDN'T MAKE SENSE? WHY?

If none point out the apparent contradictions of the two points of view expressed in the column (p.2) entitled TO THE EDITOR, have them examine the items there.

Ask the class to explain what each author is saying. Ask what they think about this.

In essence one is condemning and the other praising Africans for never inventing anything.

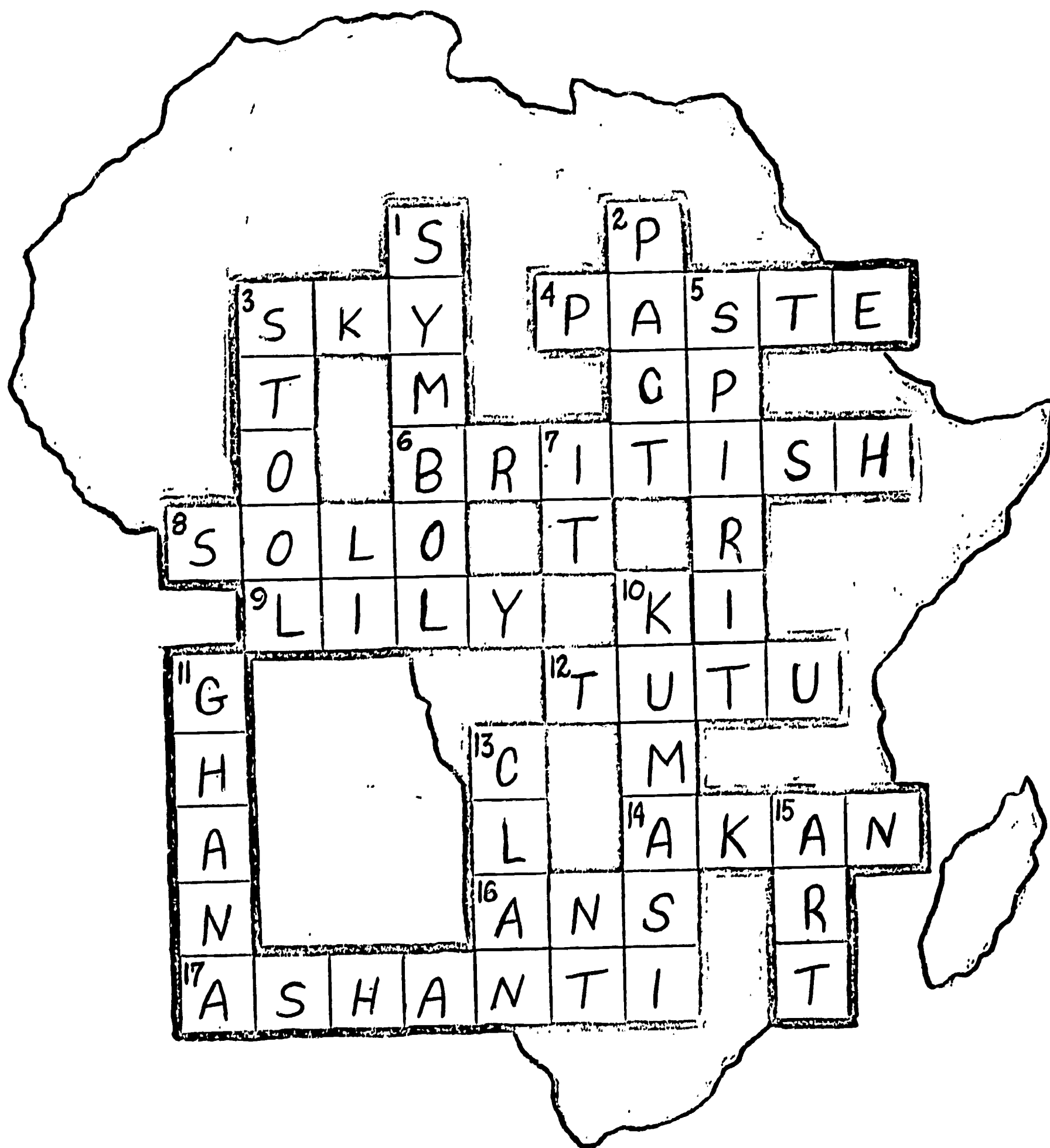
Suggest that they investigate Africa's past to find out which view is correct -- Did Africans ever invent anything or not?

Have the students read the articles on Leaky (1) and the Queen of Sheba (4) in The African World for the next class.

THE AFRICAN WORLD STUDENT NEWSPAPER

Notes to the Teacher

CROSSWORD PUZZLE KEY



UNIT I

AFRICA BEFORE 500 A.D. -- ACTIVITY 2

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity is designed to explore the early history of Africa and to give the students practice in making inferences from data. It's purpose is to enable the students to hypothesize about events in early Africa in order to help solve the problem (about whether Africans ever invented anything) developed in the preceding class.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know that different people have different backgrounds (frames of reference) and that these condition what one sees or how one interprets experience.

To know that it is possible to have different interpretations of what happened in Africa before 500 A.D.

To know that evidence or data about Africa before 500 A.D. is fragmentary.

To be able to make inferences from data.

To work cooperatively with another person in a search for knowledge.

- B) Materials: Overhead projector
Reading the Past (mimeo)
Data Cards (#I-VII)
Agriculture in Africa A & B (mimeo)

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Place the following items on an overhead projector:

key paper clip
coin golf tee
pencil stamp
(or similar items)

Project these on the screen (they will be opaque). Ask: IF YOU FOUND THESE, WHAT COULD YOU SAY ABOUT THE PEOPLE OR PERSON WHO HAD THEM? WHY? (Do not allow the students to examine each individual item for details.) (Allow only 5 min. for this.)

Answers might include:

(key) - They don't trust people.
(coin) - They had a money economy.
(pencil) - They were literate.
(paper clip) - They were skilled in metal working.
etc.

- 2) Point out to the students that they are making inferences from data. This is what archaeologists and other scientists do who study man's past. They work with documents, artifacts and other kinds of remains.
- 3) Have the students tell what they could infer about Africa's past from the two articles they read for homework. (Allow only 5 min. for this.)
- 4) Tell the class they will have an opportunity to check these inferences (also hypotheses) by examining some more data.

Pair each student with the person sitting next to him. Distribute to each pair one set of data cards (#I-VII) and a copy of READING THE PAST.

Direct each pair to examine the cards and make a list of all the things that happened in Africa before 1500 A.D. Allow them to talk freely. (Allow 20 min. for this.)

- 5) With about 10 minutes remaining have the students report what they listed and the reasons why. List any comments about farming on the board.

Remind the students that they have inferred some things about early Africa. These are hypotheses.

Note that even though they all looked at the same data, different students have made different hypotheses - have drawn different inferences. Ask: WHY?

Perhaps:

Man originated in Africa.

Africa had civilized societies at the same time as did the ancient Middle East.

Civilized society in Africa may have started in "Ethiopia."

Students might report:

There was farming by 10,000 B.C.

There was a great movement of people in Africa between 100 A.D. and the present.

Iron-working may have spread south and west from Mexico.

Africans must have had contact with outsiders (to secure the food crops not indigenous to Africa).
etc.

Because different people have different experiences and these lead them to notice different things and ask different questions.

The background through which one views experience is called a frame of reference. A biologist has a special frame of reference; a soldier has a different one; a cowboy has still another. This frame of reference helps us make sense of what we see or read. Because it is different for each person it is possible for many people to see the same thing differently.

Return to the hypotheses just made about early African history. Tell the students that one way to see if they are accurate is examine what scholars who have investigated this say. Distribute the mimeo AGRICULTURE IN AFRICA to the students (some should receive version A and some version B -- do not indicate there is any difference between these versions or that the letters mean anything).

Direct the students to read the mimeo for the next class and to complete the questions on the study guide on the reverse side of the mimeo.

READING THE PAST

The earliest men did not leave us any written records or design "time capsules" for our use. Our knowledge about them is thus limited to what we can guess about them from objects they made or used. These objects are most often tools, weapons and containers. They are found mostly in or near the remains of fireplaces, storage pits, building foundations and especially garbage dumps. From these we can get an idea of how things were made, what materials were used, whether or not trade existed, and how people made a living. Broken and incomplete objects like these are not just objects, but are clues to the actions of human beings.

People do things for a reason. Thus, objects made by people can tell us something about the people who made them. Moreover, the objects found near them also help tell something. A bone, a pot, or an arrowhead in itself tells us little. It is all the things found near the object itself that help it mean something. An arrowhead found with the remains of a large animal reveals not only the fact that its owners used arrows, but something about the foods or clothing and other tools used by these people.

Scientists attach special importance to how people obtain food. The ease or difficulty with which this is done influences the formation of villages, the size of a population and the organization of society. Food-getting methods can be determined in part by the kinds of tools used. The importance of hunting and fishing can be revealed by equipment such as spears, harpoons, bows, fish hooks and boats. Animal remains at butchering sites indicate the degree of skill of the hunters. A site that includes the bones of large animals which could furnish a great supply of meat suggests

that the people who used it were quite skillful, a site that includes only the bones of small, slow moving animals that were easily caught suggests that the people who used it were less skillful.

Agricultural people can be identified by such things as sickles, grindstones and polished stone axes. Fragments of pottery tell us about the life of people. Since easily breakable pottery would be of little use to nomadic people, the presence of pottery indicates that the people lived in more permanent settlements. Permanently settled farmers store surplus crops in above-ground silos or underground storage pits. Perhaps the best evidence of agriculture comes from the botanist's examination of seeds or plant-life preserved in the form of fire-charred grains or seeds accidentally impressed in sun-baked pottery.

People with a fairly constant supply of food usually are well-organized. They also usually divide up the work so that some people specialize in doing one thing while others do something else. This specialization of labor is often difficult to recognize unless actual workshops can be found. Indirect evidence such as the distribution and quality of workmanship of objects may indicate specialization. The most specialized craft of the ancients was metal working; the distribution of metal tools gives clues to a people's degree of development.

What we know about the prehistoric past--the time before men wrote things down--is nothing more than what we can "read" or interpret from objects unearthed by careful digging. Indeed, what we think is true about any people or time is actually only what we or someone else interpret from the available evidence. As the evidence, or the ideas of the investigator, changes so, too, does what we "know." The record of our past is therefore constantly changing--there is no absolute truth about it. It is the search for this truth that leads people to study history.

EVIDENCE OF MAN FOUND IN AFRICA

Olduvai Gorge
1,700,000 B.C.?

pebble tools (small rocks that have been chipped by man), and the bones of birds, snakes, lizzards, rodents, young pigs and young antelopes.

Olorgesailie
60,000 B.C.?

hand axes, cleavers and some small stone tools; many stone balls, some found in groups of three; crushed bones of a giant baboon, hundreds of baboon teeth, bones of horses and pigs the size of a rhino. Along the shore of a former lakebed was found an irregular line of stones protruding into the lake to form a "pen-like" structure.

Khartoum
10,000 B.C.?

small stone tools including: long, narrow blades, crescent-shaped blades, arrowheads, red-like pointed stones, small sandstone pebbles with growths around the middle, pottery fragments which show the impressions of fiber braided into cord, bone harpoon heads.

Njoro River
960 B.C.?

burned remains of eighty individuals, broken pottery, stone bowls (charred inside), grindstones, pestles, quantities of beads, a wooden pot, woven basket work, and the charred remains of braided fibre cord.

Nok
500 B.C.?

life-like heads of baked clay, parts of statues, polished stone hoes and axes, and an iron axehead.

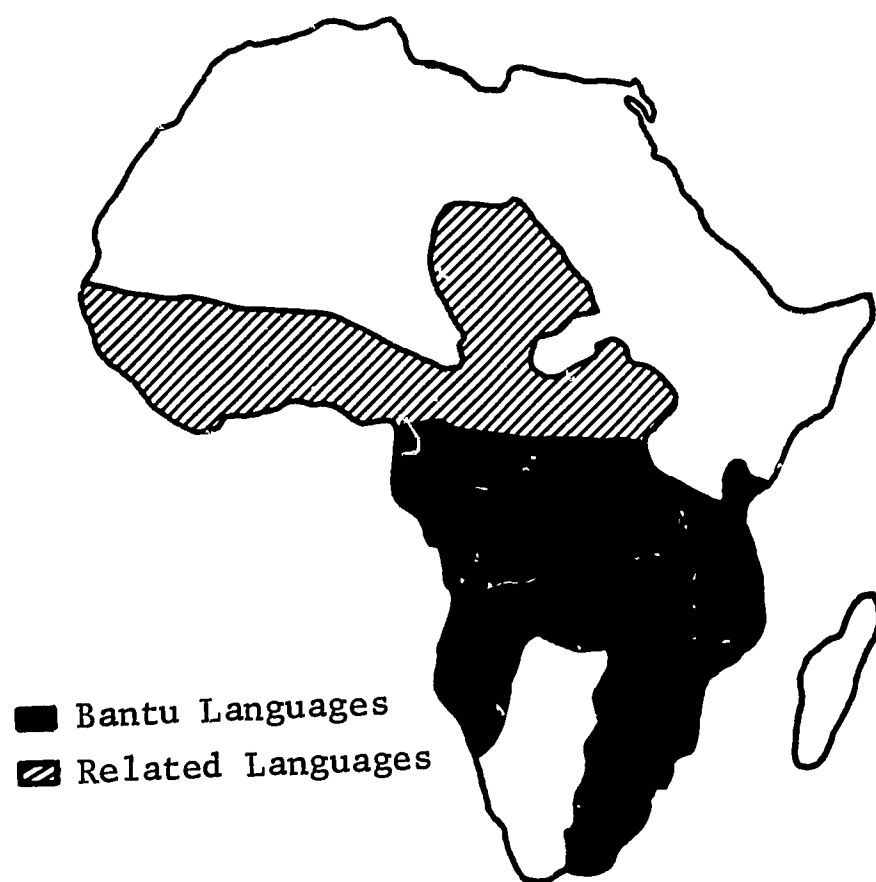


A.



Area believed to be original
homeland of Bantu-speaking
peoples prior to 100 A.D.

B.



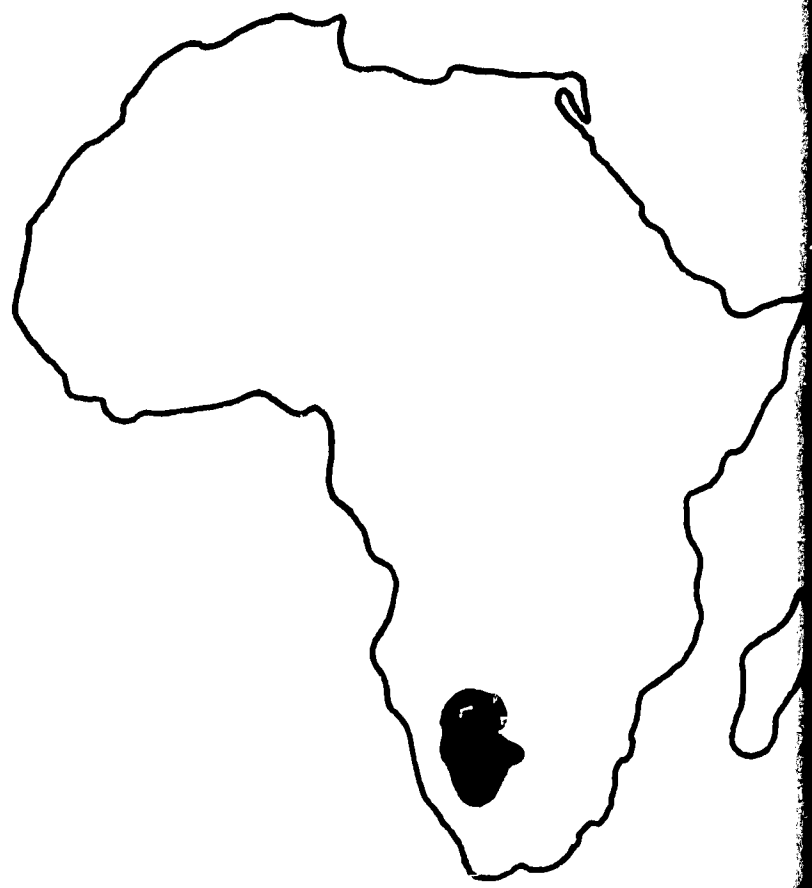
Areas inhabited by Bantu-
speaking peoples today.

C.



Location of Bushman Rock
Paintings dating back to
500 A.D.

D.



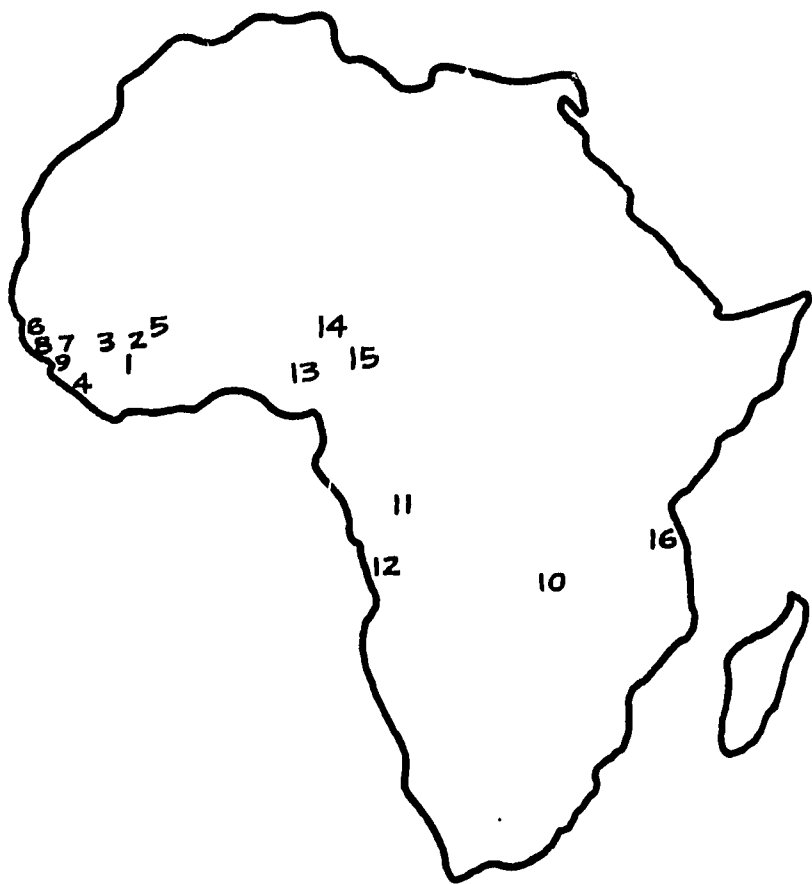
Where the Bushman live today.

THE FOLLOWING CHART CONTAINS THE TRIBAL WORD FOR
WHITE MAN

<u>Tribe</u>	<u>Their word for white man</u>	<u>Tribe</u>	<u>Their word for white man</u>
1. Gbandi	puru	6. Baga	ipoto
2. Kono	puru-mue	7. Temne	poto
3. Mende	puru-mo	8. Bulom	potuno
4. Vai	puru-mo	9. Mampa	poduno
5. Kisi	puru-no	10. Luba	mputu

<u>Tribe</u>	<u>Their word for white man</u>
11. Teke	temputu
12. Kongo	mamputu
13. Nupe	tura
14. Hausa	tura
15. Kambali	batule
16. Nguru	badure

THE FOLLOWING MAP INDICATES THE PRESENT-DAY LOCATION OF
THE TRIBES LISTED ABOVE:

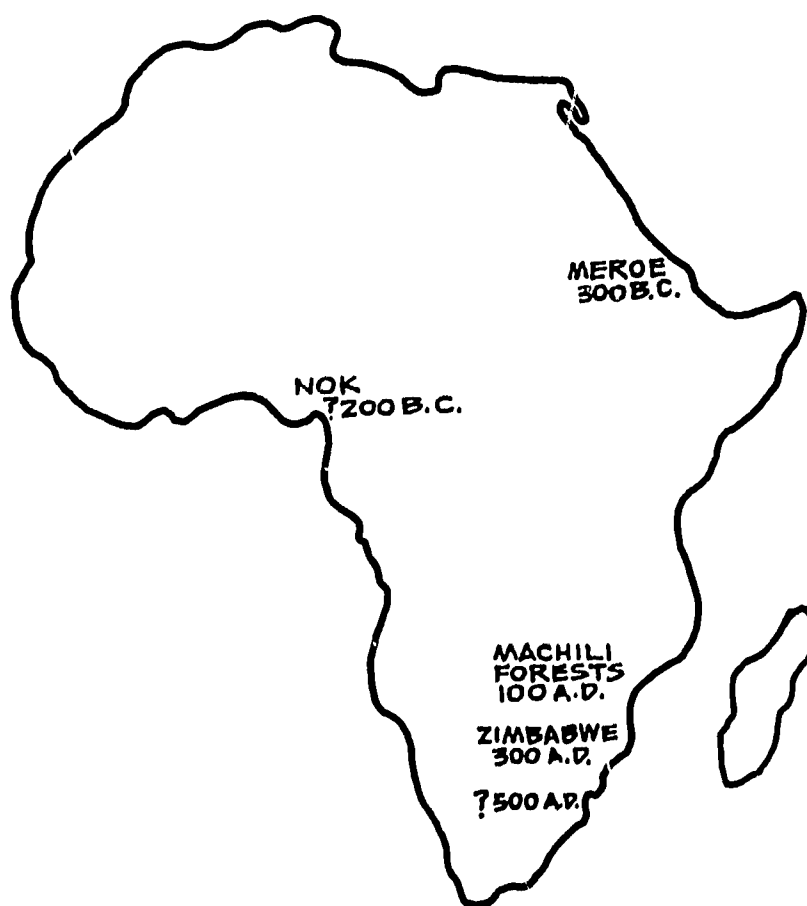


IRON

Africans used iron at least 2200 years ago. Iron objects have been found in the graves of the ancient kings of Kush near Meroe; radio-carbon testing indicates these graves date from at least 362 B.C. The outskirts of the ancient city of Meroe itself are surrounded with huge piles of iron slag. Furnaces, believed to have been used to smelt iron, have been uncovered near these slag heaps. Remains of large sources of iron ore and of trees from which charcoal (used in smelting the ore) was made have also been found.

A number of excellent, small clay figures have been unearthed near the village of Nok in western Nigeria. Among other items found near these figures were ax heads and other objects made of iron. Radio-carbon tests indicate the society that produced these objects existed between 900 B.C. and 200 A.D. The evidence further suggests that the Nok people developed the ability to produce iron objects during the last several centuries of their existence.

In southern Africa, excavations have uncovered iron objects at several different sites (locations) dating as far back as 1900 years ago. The earliest site discovered so far is in the Machili Forest, just to the north of the Upper Zambezi River in present-day Zambia. This site has been radio-carbon dated to about 100 A.D. Implements and objects found in the central Rhodesian city of Zimbabwe indicate its inhabitants began using iron as early as 330 A.D. Other iron-age sites have been discovered in other parts of Rhodesia and in the Transvaal of South Africa; many of these date as early as 500 A.D.



6/7/8

A

AGRICULTURE IN AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

This is a summary of the
opinions and conclusions of
anthropologist George Peter Murdock

Until about 5000 B.C. the entire continent of Africa was still in the Stone Age. None of its inhabitants practiced any agriculture whatsoever. None owned any domestic animal, except perhaps the dog. Then, in Egypt and the Western Sudan (that part of West Africa just south of the Sahara), a change occurred. There was a shift from food-gathering to food-production through the raising of cultivated plants and domesticated animals.

Ancient Egypt borrowed agriculture and domestic animals from Southwest Asia. Village life had developed with agriculture in the hills east of central Iraq about 6500 B.C. Radiocarbon dating shows that agriculture spread from the Fertile Crescent to lower Egypt around 4500 B.C. With the further development of agriculture came the remarkable civilization of Egypt.

At about this same time--4500 B.C.--agriculture was developed independently by the Negroes of West Africa. This was an invention, not a borrowing from another people. Negro Africa ranks as one of the four areas on earth where agriculture has originated.

Several factors account for the failure to recognize this achievement of the Negro. Plant specialists have known of the African origin of certain food plants, but have not been able to determine when they were first used. Compared to the Nile Valley, West Africa has been little studied and as a result there is a lack of information. Vavilov, the Russian botanist who has contributed the most to our knowledge of the origin of cultivated plants, never happened to visit Negro Africa. Thus, he placed the origin of West African plants in Ethiopia and India. Finally, many people did not study the area of West Africa. They believed that the Negro was an inferior race and was unable to make an important contribution to man's development. The development of African culture, they thought, had to be explained by Negro contact with some other "higher" race.

It is from the study of linguistics (languages) that the strongest evidence for a West African origin comes. As people first advanced from a hunting and gathering society to agriculture, they were able to increase in number and spread geographically at the expense of their more backward neighbors. As a result, the language they spoke should also have spread geographically. This condition does not exist in either the Central Sudan or the Eastern Sudan. But, it can be found in the Western Sudan among the Mande languages, which center on the upper Niger River. The distribution of these agricultural people shows that they have spread in all directions at the expense of their nearby neighbors. This expansion could only have been made possible by their invention of agriculture.

The invention of agriculture in Negro Africa is to be credited to the Mande peoples. It is probably no accident that the earliest and most advanced civilizations in this part of Africa of which we possess actual historical records, are those of the Mande-speaking peoples.

STUDY GUIDE -- ACTIVITY 2

A major characteristic of life in Africa south of the Sahara today is that by far the vast majority of the people make a living directly from the soil. This has been true of most Africans for centuries. Farming is a quite common way of earning a living--so common, in fact, that we often take its existence for granted. Yet, once no one farmed. No one planted crops, cared for them and harvested them for food or fiber. Sometime in the far distant past, man had to learn how to farm. Sometime in the far distant past some Africans became farmers. How and when did this happen?

Many people have attempted to answer these questions. The views of one are on the reverse side of this page. Study them and answer the following questions:

1. About when did agriculture begin in Africa?
2. Where, in Africa, did the raising of plants for food and fiber and the domestication of animals start?
3. How did the inhabitants of western Africa--usually called the Sudan--learn to plant crops and domesticate animals?

Based on George Peter Murdock, Africa: Its Peoples and their Culture History. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. pp. 64-68.

B

AGRICULTURE IN AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

This is a summary of the
opinions and conclusions of
historian J. Desmond Clark

Between 8,000 and 12,000 years ago Africans stopped using every edible plant or animal for food. Instead, they began to concentrate on using just one or two for their main food supply. Although the exact reason for this is still unknown, it could have been the result of changes in the climate which in turn affected the location of game and limited the areas best suited for hunting and gathering.

Evidence has been found in West Central Africa of large settlements located on the edge of the forests. Among the objects uncovered at these sites have been rather advanced stone tools and even the remains of one or two vegetable foods. To the south and east--along the seacoast and lakes--people began to use fish as a source of protein. Yet hunting, gathering and periodic migration were still practiced.

Thus, by 6000 B.C. there were two separate areas, each inhabited by large numbers of settled people. Those living on the edge of the forests grew staple food crops and hunted--those near the coast and lakes emphasized fishing and hunting.

About 5500 B.C. the lakes region of Central Africa began receiving an unusually heavy amount of rain. The people living there began moving northward into the green Sahara. Soon they came in contact with Mediterranean peoples moving south through the newly-watered Sahara. As a result of this contact the Africans learned how to cultivate crops. They certainly could not have been too slow in adopting some kind of agriculture. It was based, we must suppose, on wheat and barley as well as cattle and sheep. And, of course, hunting still supplied them with plenty of meat.

In time, however, these Africans devoted more and more attention to cultivating crops for food. They were quick to experiment with it and to adapt it to their region. It is easy to see how simple cultivation practices, based on the wild yam and oil-bearing palm, could have grown up in western and central Africa because many people had the habit of storing them by partly burying them in the ground.

Yet, plant cultivation and the domestication of animals could hardly have been effective in producing food in West Africa until after 1000 B.C. East Africans, on the other hand, first began to cultivate millet and domesticate stock about 2000 B.C.

Existing archaeological evidence indicates that the peoples of Africa south of the Sahara seem never to have contributed anything to farming or agriculture. Although this region appears to have been that part of Africa best suited for domesticating large animals, none were ever domesticated there. Instead, domestic animals came from outside sources. Even the "know how" for cultivating cereal crops seems to have come from outside areas.

STUDY GUIDE -- ACTIVITY 2

A major characteristic of life in Africa south of the Sahara today is that by far the vast majority of the people make a living directly from the soil. This has been true of most Africans for centuries. Farming is a quite common way of earning a living--so common, in fact, that we often take its existence for granted. Yet, once no one farmed. No one planted crops, cared for them and harvested them for food or fiber. Sometime in the far distant past, man had to learn how to farm. Sometime in the far distant past some Africans became farmers. How and when did this happen?

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Based on J. Desmond Clark, "Africa South of the Sahara," in Courses Toward Urban Life, Robert J. Braidwood and Gordon R. Willey, editors. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1962, pp. 1-33.

UNIT I

AFRICA BEFORE 500 A.D. -- ACTIVITY 3

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity is designed to summarize some major features of Africa's earliest history and to underscore the tentativeness of what is known to be true about this period of time. It is intended to put students in touch with scholarly but conflicting interpretations of data similar to that with which they have been working so that they may become more aware of the fact that much of "history"--especially that of Africa south of the Sahara--is interpretation and not absolute, irrefutable fact.

The objectives of this activity are:

To know that the early history of Africa south of the Sahara was characterized by:

The development of techniques of farming and iron-working and associated ways of living.

A massive movement of people throughout the south-central portions of the continent that was related to the knowledge of farming and iron-working.

Some type of extended contact with peoples of other parts of the world, especially Asia.

To know that our knowledge of the earliest history of Africa must be pieced together from evidence gathered by botanists, linguists, archaeologists and other scientists.

To know that there is some evidence--but by no means is it conclusive--that Africans may have invented agriculture and iron-working.

To know that what is known about early Africa is quite tentative and subject to change and revision.

To identify relationships among data.

To synthesize diverse data into meaningful generalizations.

- B) Materials: Agriculture in Africa A & B (mimeo)
The Peopling of Africa (mimeo)
Data Cards (#I-VII)

C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

1. Start the class by having the students refer to the study guide for the reading, Agriculture in Africa.

Ask: ABOUT WHEN DID AGRICULTURE BEGIN IN AFRICA? Write the two different answers given in separate columns. (Do not label the columns.)

Ask: WHERE DID IT BEGIN?

Ask: HOW DID AFRICANS LEARN TO BE AGRICULTURALISTS?

- 2) It should be obvious to the class that two different opinions are being expressed. Ask: HOW DO YOU ACCOUNT FOR TWO ANSWERS TO THE SAME QUESTION?

- 3) Ask: HOW CAN WE EXPLAIN THE FACT THAT TWO SCHOLARS HAVE DIFFERING VIEWS OF THE SAME THING?

Point out that this is similar to what the class did yesterday. This is an example of how frames of reference affect what one believes to be true.

- 4) Ask: WHAT KIND OF EVIDENCE OR TECHNIQUES DID THESE SCHOLARS USE? Point out its similarity to that on the Data Cards.
- 5) Ask: IN VIEW OF OUR INQUIRY AND OF WHAT THESE SCHOLARS SAY, WHAT CAN WE SAY ABOUT EARLY AFRICA (TO 500 A.D.) THAT IS MOST LIKELY TRUE? Encourage the students to reexamine the Data Cards and their notes.

A
5000 BC

B
after 6000 BC

Southwest Asia
& Western Sudan

Northern Sahara

Invented

Borrowed from
Middle East

Students should suggest that they have read two different interpretations.

Perhaps these scholars:

- looked at different evidence
- have different backgrounds
- have different beliefs--
frames of reference

archaeological remains
plant types
radio-carbon testing

The northern part of Africa seems to have developed first.

Botanical, linguistic, and other kinds of data unearthed by archaeologists, anthropologists and other scientists must be used in the absence of written records.

Knowledge of iron-working existed in northern Africa by 300 B.C. and may have spread southward.

- 6) Conclude the class by referring to the problem developed in The African World on whether or not Africans ever invented anything. Ask: DID THEY INVENT ANYTHING? WHAT IS YOUR EVIDENCE?

Distribute the mimeographed reading The Peopling of Africa. Direct the students to read it for homework to check over what they have just said about Africa's early history.

There was a movement of peoples throughout the south-central portions of the continent between 100 A.D. and 1500 A.D.

There seems to have been some extended contact between Africans south of the Sahara and Asians.

Very little is actually known about Africa's early history.

etc.

There is some evidence that agriculture--the domestication of plants and animals--could have been invented by Africans living south of the Sahara without any contact with outsiders.

THE PEOPLING OF AFRICA

One of the great mysteries of Africa's early history concerns its Bantu-speaking peoples. Today they occupy most of central and southern Africa. However, existing evidence suggests that once they did not--that they moved into this region hundreds of years ago from a small area in some other part of the continent. But no one knows exactly where this homeland was; no one really knows where the Bantu came from. Nor do they know the paths they followed to reach the areas where they presently live. In fact, no one really knows for sure even why they moved into southern Africa in the first place. African scholars have been trying for years to solve these problems.

The Bantu language itself may provide the clues needed to solve this mystery. The term "Bantu" is used to describe a group of languages spoken today throughout most of the southern half of Africa. These languages appear to be related to each other in many ways. In fact, many experts believe they are so closely related that they may all be off-shoots of one, original language. The study of these relationships--called linguistics--suggests several theories about the origin and migrations of the Bantu-speaking peoples in Africa.

Until recently many people accepted Sir Harry Johnson's theory that the homeland of these people was in the Ubangi-Shari basin of the northern part of the Central African Republic. Other scholars, such as Joseph Greenberg, have suggested that the Bantu originated in the savanna lands along the Nigerian-Cameroon border. A more recent study, however, suggests that the Bantu homeland was located in part of what is now the Katanga province of the Republic of the Congo.

This study--by Malcolm Guthrie--was based on an analysis of certain words found in over 200 Bantu languages. He examined over 22,000 words that appeared to be related to one another. In these Guthrie found 2300 basic word roots that were widely distributed. About 500 of these word roots appeared to be found in all the Bantu languages. So Guthrie counted the number of these 500 roots that he found in each language, turned these numbers into percentages and plotted them on a map of African languages.

He found that those languages which included the largest per cent of these word roots were concentrated in central Africa in the area centering on Katanga. The Luba and Bemba languages, in the middle of this cluster, each have at least 50% of these word roots (see dark areas on map p. 3). The percentage of root words present in neighboring languages gradually declined the farther these were from this central area. The results of this study suggest to him that the Bantu homeland was the woodland area of the southeastern Congo and that these people gradually expanded outward from there--first in an east-west direction and then in a north-south direction.

Whatever the homeland of the Bantu it is apparent that they eventually migrated to other parts of Africa. There are several theories about the routes used in these migrations. Johnson thought these migrations were armed invasions southward through the Lakes region of east-central Africa and then westward. George Murdock believes that the Bantu used two routes

to migrate from a homeland in Nigeria. One led into the rainforest region of the central Congo. The other led eastward to the lakes; there new sources of food, such as sorghum, were discovered and passed westward to those who remained behind, whereupon they then moved through the rainforest into the southern savannas. Guthrie argues that the Bantu spread outward in all directions from their Katanga area homeland.

Why the Bantu migrated is another part of the mystery. Murdock believes that these migrations were due to the introduction of new food crops from Southeast Asia. The banana, yam and taro enabled the Bantu to survive in the rainforest; there they discovered the cereal crops (sorghum, millett) of the Lakes region and this enabled them to move into the savannas of the south. Other scholars argue that knowing how to make iron weapons and tools--not food crops--was the major cause of these migrations. The use of iron tools and spears, they believe, led to strong military organizations which made these migrations successful.

Still another scholar--Merrick Posansky--believes both iron and agriculture account for these migrations. Farming was necessary since hunting alone could not supply enough food for the growing Bantu population. But so was iron. It was needed to clear away the brush of the forest regions for planting. He suggests that the Asian food crops came to the Bantu by way of the island of Madagascar. Knowledge of iron-making came by way of Meroe, reaching Nok by 300 B.C. The arrival of both of these then made possible the Bantu migration into other parts of Africa.

It is not necessary to accept just one of these theories and discard the others. Professor Roland Oliver, after examining all of these, has developed a theory that includes many aspects of all of them. He believes that the region in which the original Bantu-speaking peoples multiplied and from which they spread over central and southern Africa was the woodland region of the Katanga. But the ancestors of these people could very easily have been a few hundred people who migrated from the Nigerian-Cameroon (or Shari Basin) region through the Congo forest to these southern woodlands.

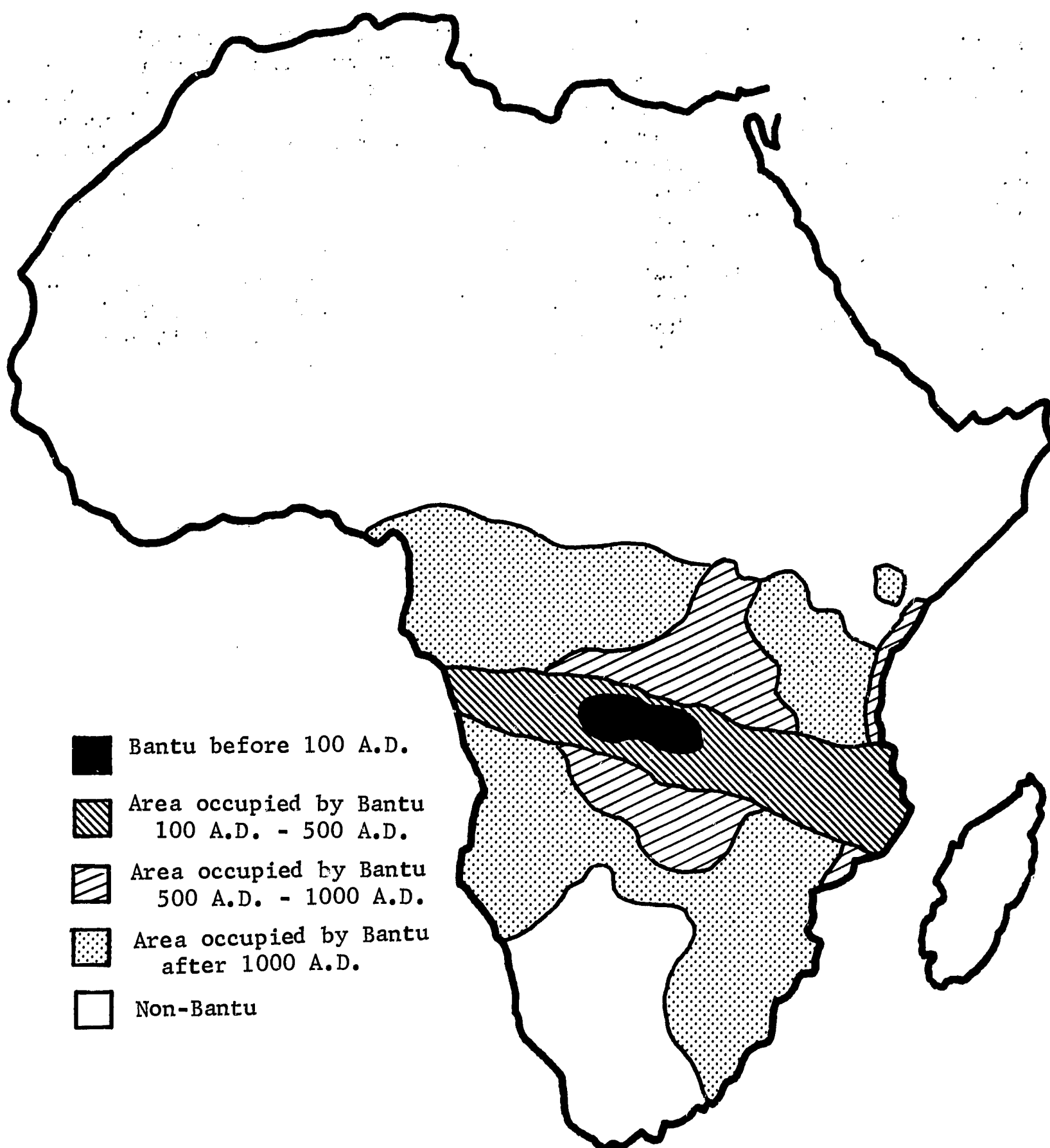
Oliver points out that the woodlands regions of Katanga and of the Nigerian-Cameroon area and the Ubangi-Shari Basin are quite similar. All three regions are timbered, but not densely. All three have numerous streams. They are neither very dry nor very humid. They are, in fact, ideal for growing millett or sorghum and abound with fish and wild game. Iron and copper are also plentiful, especially in the Katanga region.

Oliver's argument is that people from the northern woodland regions moved into the Katanga region. There they established a way of life similar to that they left behind in the north. He believes it was the discovery of ways to use iron that made this move possible--because iron made possible weapons useful in hunting, fishing and clearing the brush from the land. The Nok culture, in Nigeria was smelting iron by 250 B.C. The fact that the earliest known evidence of iron in Southern Africa (at the Machili Forest Station) dates from around 100 A.D. suggests that the knowledge of iron-making was brought south by these people.

So Oliver views the Bantu migrations as occurring in a series of steps (see map). Sometime between 250 B.C. and 100 A.D. some people left their homeland in the North--possibly the area around the Nigeria-Cameroon border. Equipped with iron tools and weapons they migrated southward through the

Bantu Expansion

A Theory by Roland Oliver



Based on map in Robert O. Collins, ed., Problems in African History. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968, p. 107.

Congo forest following its many rivers and streams. Between 100 A.D. and 500 A.D. these people settled down in the woodlands of the Katanga. There they multiplied in numbers and began to spread eastward and westward. Oliver compares this region of settlement to the bridgehead of settlement first established by European settlers on the Atlantic coast of North America following the settlement of the Jamestown, New York and Plymouth colonies. It was in this Katanga region that the original Bantu language took shape.

Between 500 A.D. and 1000 A.D. the Bantu population increased very rapidly, primarily because of their improved farming and hunting tools and methods. Many Bantu began to move outward from the central area of Katanga. As they did, their language began to alter because of certain local usages and the influence of other language groups with whom they came in contact. Gradually they moved outward until Bantu-speaking peoples occupied most of central and southern Africa. The language of those farthest from their Katanga homeland came to differ considerably from the mother-tongue Bantu. The language of those closer to this central homeland retained more traces of this original Bantu. Thus, Oliver uses evidence gathered by archeologists, botanists and linguists to explain how much of Africa south of the Sahara was peopled. His theory may or may not be correct, but it does help explain much about African history before 1000 A.D.

AFRICA BEFORE 500 A.D. -- ACTIVITY 4

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This is the concluding activity for the study of Africa prior to 1000 A.D. It also establishes the background for the following unit. It is designed to help students understand the role of interpretation in history and the role of various kinds of evidence in making these interpretations. The activity concludes by building on inquiry of this and the three preceding lessons to set the stage for the study of Africa's ancient empires which follows.

The specific objectives are:

To know that our knowledge of Africa's earliest history is based on data gathered and interpreted by linguists, botanists and anthropologists as well as other scientists.

To know that explaining Africa's past requires a synthesis of often fragmentary and conflicting data.

To know that explanations of Africa's past are interpretations and tentative.

To make inferences from data.

To synthesize data into meaningful interpretations.

To hypothesize.

- B) Materials: Data Cards #II and III
The Peopling of Africa (mimeo)
Student booklet Topic I - History of Africa

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Have the students refer to the mimeo reading THE PEOPLING OF AFRICA. Ask: WHAT ARE THE MAJOR QUESTIONS SCHOLARS HAVE ASKED ABOUT THE PEOPLING OF AFRICA?
- 2) Ask: HOW HAVE THESE QUESTIONS BEEN ANSWERED? Have the students describe briefly the major interpretations--use a wall map to illustrate each.
- 3) Ask: WHAT EVIDENCE IS USED? Focus on Guthrie's interpretation and his use of linguistics.

When did the Bantu migrate?
Where did they originate?
Why did they migrate?

- a) Have the students refer to Data Card II. Ask: WHAT DOES IT SUGGEST?
 - b) Refer to Data Card III. Ask: WHAT DOES IT SUGGEST? Have them note the root words of each tribe's word for "white man"; have them note relationships between these.
 - c) Relate this to Guthrie's investigation. This is a simplified version of what he did many times over. It is an example of how linguistic data may help provide clues to history.
- 4) Have the students describe Oliver's hypothesis (THE PEOPLING OF AFRICA). Point out it is just that--only a hypothesis.
 - 5) Ask: WHAT DOES OLIVER THINK WAS HAPPENING IN SOUTH-CENTRAL AFRICA BETWEEN 500-1500 A.D.?
 - 6) Tell the students that shortly before Columbus discovered America in 1492 other European explorers discovered they could sail around Africa. In a few years European nations began setting up trading posts and even colonies along the African coast. But it was over 300 years before they began to move into the interior. So Africans had almost all of Africa to themselves until after 1850.

An expansion of Bantu speaking peoples into central Africa and a corresponding withdrawal of the Bushmen from this area

That the languages of all these tribes may have a common ancestor; at least, they appear to be somewhat related.

During this time the Bantu were spreading north and south from the Katanga area. They evidently had become proficient farmers and hunters and their population was expanding rapidly. They needed room.

Ask: WHAT WAS AFRICA (SOUTH OF THE SAHARA) LIKE BETWEEN 500-1800 A.D.--BEFORE EUROPEANS ARRIVED IN FORCE? WHAT WERE ITS PEOPLE LIKE?

Have the students copy their hypotheses in their notes.

7) Distribute the student booklet for Topic II - HISTORY OF AFRICA.

a) If time permits, direct them to examine the map on page 1 to find Zimbabwe and then have them quickly read pp.1-3 - Early Legend About Zimbabwe. Ask: WHAT WAS ZIMBABWE LIKE?

b) For homework, direct the students to read pp.3-5 in the booklet (The Discovery of Zimbabwe). In doing so they should look for information that would help them answer the question: IF YOU WENT TO ZIMBABWE WHAT WOULD YOU EXPECT TO SEE?

8) If time does not permit doing 7a) and b) above, merely distribute the booklet and direct the students to read pp.1-5 about Zimbabwe and be prepared to discuss in the next class WHAT THEY WOULD EXPECT TO SEE IF THEY WENT TO ZIMBABWE TOMORROW.

The students might hypothesize that Africa was a wild untamed wilderness inhabited by people who:

were uncivilized
wandered from place to place
hunted for a living
raised simple crops
etc.

A city or fortress
Ruled by an absolute king
Produced gold
Inhabited by a warlike people

AFRICAN "PREHISTORY "

Notes to the Teacher

The prehistory of Africa, that is, the events and occurrences before the appearance of written records, is at best a nearly impossible web to unravel. Historians must depend on a number of related fields in order to shed any light whatsoever on the happenings of this era. Their tools include the findings and interpretations of these findings from archeological excavations, linguistic relationships, botany and the distribution of plants, the close scrutiny of social organizations, radiocarbon dating of relics and implements of the past as well as oral traditions and the few contemporary records available. All of these are, of course, open to different interpretations and generalizations. One can readily see the problem presented and the possibility for different conclusions based on the same evidence. Of primary concern here are the related problems of the peopling of the African continent and the domesticating of both plants and animals.

The Peopling of Africa

According to the most recent archeological discoveries, the human species may have originated in Africa. The earliest specimens seem to be similar in appearance and behavior to the modern Bushmen, Pygmies, and Australian aborigines. There is no evidence, however, whether modern Caucasians and Negroes are descended from these or if they developed in parallel. One scientist claims that there was no true Bushmen stock before the latter stages of the Old Stone Age, that its appearance later was the outcome of environmental and social or cultural selection pressures. In any event, there is evidence to indicate the presence of Cushites, Bushmen and Pygmies before 10,000 B.C. The Caucasoid-like Cushites (sometimes referred to as Hamites) were first found in what is now western Kenya. They are believed to have migrated northward to Arabia and western Asia as well as to Egypt and North Africa. Previous to this, the Bushmen scattered from South Africa through East Africa to the Sahara, the Pygmies went from Kenya to the Congo Basin and West Africa, some Austroloids were absorbed but the rest migrated through Asia to Australia and Oceania. The Negro cannot be distinguished before about 6000 B.C. (some say 4000 B.C.), but they appeared in the Sahara well above the rain forest from the Nile region to the Atlantic Ocean.

The origin of the Negro has presented a major problem to most Africanists. One guess is that Negroes are a branch of Cushites from the upper Nile who spread rapidly westward. Another claims that they appeared through the mingling of existing races as well as environmental selection, while yet others base their existence solely on selection pressures operating in an equatorial environment which brought about a different modification of the original stock. Still other theories suggest a variation within the Cushites or a combination with the Bushmen or

Pygmies. Wrigley states that there is no reason for a mystery concerning the emergence of the Negro, since "The various physical traits which make up this concept were presumably gradual deviations, for the most part environmentally determined from the less specialized forms of Homo Sapiens which occupied Africa in the pluvial epoch, though not visible in the archeological record until perhaps 10,000 years ago..."

By 5000 B.C. there were four races which occupied Africa: (1) the Bush stock, or Bush-Boskop, in the open parts of the continent from the Sahara to South Africa; (2) the Negro in the west-central forest fringes; (3) the Pygmy in the central forests; and (4) the Hamites (Cushites) in the north and east. Wiedner points out that the evidence indicates that the four basic racial and linguistic groups occupying Africa at the dawn of recorded history which were mentioned above all originated within a radius of 250 miles of Lake Victoria.

Domestication of Plants and Animals

Sometime after 8000 B.C. food cultivation of some sort and undoubtedly on a small scale was adopted in several places throughout the world. The exact times and places are much in dispute. Most authorities agree that the Semitic branch of the Afroasiatic-speaking Caucasoids in the Jordan and Tigris valleys was one such site. One writer points out that the excavations at Jericho place the time of food production in eighth millennium B.C. and further states that most of the world's crop plants were in use by 3000 B.C., some in a highly advanced form. The Mongoloid peoples of Southeast Asia and the American Indians in the Middle America regions had also invented agriculture. A fourth site of early agriculture, the Mande peoples of the upper Niger River in the western Sudan, is still much in dispute. It is apparent, that due to rather unusual wet conditions in the Sahara, early agriculture and animal domestication were practiced quite early. This wet period extended from the sixth thru the third millenniums B.C. and enabled peoples moving southward to the Sahara and northward from the savannas to the desert to come in contact with one another and exchange cultural and economic activities. When this wet phase ended during the second millennium B.C. the peoples returning to the savannas and forest fringes brought with them food-production and animal domestication. These they passed on to tribes further south. Ihote in his investigations in 1957 found that the evidence indicated that crops were grown without irrigation until about 2000 B.C., cattle were widespread until 1000 B.C., and horses grazed the area until Roman times.

Archeological evidence shows that by the first half of the fourth millennium B.C. Neolithic culture and food-production had spread to the upper Nile near present day Khartoum. Whether directly from the Middle East via the Nile or whether transmitted eastward from the Sudan, is not definitely known. There is agreement that there were two kinds of agriculture practiced in the Sudanic region and savannas. One was the

growing of cereal crops such as wheat, barley, millet and sorghum; the other consisted of plant crops such as the banana, yam, oil plants, and pumpkin. The first of these, the cereals, were known to have been brought from Southwest Asia while the latter, the plants, were of a local origin.

Whether or not West African agriculture was invented there, we do find proof that at some very early date the Negroes developed several cereals, rice, okra, certain forms of yams, several types of millets, peanuts (groundnuts), watermelons, gourds, kola, tamarind, and sesame. Wrigley thinks that many of these may have been borrowed or adapted early in African history, but all agree that the most spectacular achievements of the early Negro cultivators was the adapting of the wild form of cotton into the fiber plant used in making textiles and the use of oil-producing plants such as the palms. These two discoveries were supposedly transmitted to Egypt between 3000 and 1000 B.C. and then on to the rest of the known world. We also know that the Negroes of the savanna received from Mesopotamia through Egypt a number of common plants which they readily adapted to their economy. These included, in addition to the already mentioned barley and wheat, peas, lentils, beets, onions, radishes, cabbages, grapes, melons, figs, garlic, olives, and linen flax. Sometime later cucumbers, bananas, sugar cane, ginger, and new forms of rice were introduced from eastern Asia. In Ethiopia coffee and cress were developed after agricultural methods had been learned from the Egyptians and Negroes.

Existing information indicates that the domestication of animals probably came into Africa along with the knowledge of cultivation. Clark points out that the domestication of sheep, cattle, and goats was probably as revolutionary as that of domesticating plants since it gave the people a permanent source of protein. Radiocarbon dating indicates that cattle herding was established in Northwest Africa by the fourth millennium B.C. and possibly earlier. The rock art of the region picturing cattle asserts that animal husbandry did not develop independently in Africa south of the Sahara because the fauna did not include possible ancestors for the cow, sheep, or goat. The old theory that cattle came into Africa from Arabia through the Horn has been discredited by most who now believe that the Horn people received their cattle from the Nile region or the Sahara.

Regardless of when or where animal domestication occurred, it produced, in conjunction with food-producing methods, startling changes in the societies of Africa. Wrigley thinks that food-producing was "the great divide in human history." Its importance to the people of the savanna cannot be adequately measured, but at least two major advantages are obvious. First, it permitted populations to occupy widely and permanently territory that previously could support only a few people on a temporary basis; secondly, it made possible the accumulation of material equipment which was impossible for the nomadic hunter and gatherer. Fage sees the food-producing revolution in three phases. The first phase, beginning in the fifth millennium B.C. but gaining importance in the fourth, was the emergence of a dense Caucasoid population in the lower Nile Valley. The second phase, beginning in the third millennium and becoming more significant in the second was that south of the Sahara the Negro decisively became the leading race in the savanna regions and forest

fringes. The third phase is linked with the Indonesian contacts of the early Christian era and the great migrations southward of the Negro populations in the Sudan and Guinea area. Whether one can subscribe entirely to the theories of Fage, Clark, Murdock, Wrigley or any of the other authorities on the subject, it becomes plainly evident that the domestication of both plants and animals was undoubtedly the most significant cultural and economic advance of the peoples of Africa in their long and involved history.

AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

TOPIC II

UNIT II

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS

A TEACHING GUIDE

PROJECT AFRICA

Carnegie-Mellon University

1969

22

UNIT II

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS

It may be flattering for the Western mind to think that Africans were in a primitive state of barbaric anarchy when Europeans arrived on their continent to settle, trade and "civilize." However, this notion is not supported by the evidence presently available. The lands south of the Sahara had seen the rise and fall of scores of small city states, good-sized kingdoms and giant empires before any European so much as set foot on the shores of tropical Africa. And indigenous states and empires continued to evolve and reach maturity in the ensuing 300 years. Some of these--Ghana, Mali, Songhai--may be now be somewhat familiar to many; others such as Zimbabwe, Axum, Kush, Kanem-Burnu, Kongo and Benin may not be. Yet all were once major political states and dominated large numbers of people living in Africa south of the Sahara.

This unit focuses on the study of these kingdoms. They are not the only significant political units of Africa south of the Sahara, however, for such forest states as Oyo, Ife, and Dahomey and the kingdoms and empires of Darfur, Luba and Lunda were also historically important. So, too, were the kingdoms of the Baganda in eastern Africa and the Zulu, Lovedu and Swazi in southern Africa. The states included in this study are merely representative of the hundreds that at one time or another thrived in this region.

There is a considerable amount of data available on certain of these states. Historians rely heavily on the writings of Arab merchants, geographies and travellers who studied about or visited some of the Sudanic and coastal states with great regularity after 900 A.D. Since there are fewer written records of most of the kingdoms of the interior or the forest states, however, archaeology and oral tradition must provide much of the evidence of the history of these regions.

Much data is also presently lacking. There are many aspects of these kingdoms and the lives of their inhabitants of which we are ignorant. Study of this unit will illustrate the difficulty of recreating a precisely accurate and thorough knowledge of Africa's past. It will also suggest the "open" nature of Africa's early history--it is by no means a body of already well-established data and interpretations. Much more remains to be learned.

The materials included in this unit comprise both primary and secondary sources. Some were written by visitors and actual observers of the states being studied; some are second-hand accounts recorded by contemporaries; others are modern accounts based on primary and secondary sources. The inclusion of various types of sources provides the student with an opportunity to evaluate their relative worth and to face some of the problems of interpretation and objectivity that historians must solve in attempting to answer historical questions. The materials have been selected to focus on the problem of bias and ethnocentrism--the tendency of an outside observer to judge a people or a culture in terms of an outsider's value system and

frame of reference--as well as to give a clearer picture of African society in this period.

This unit builds on Unit I in two ways. First, it follows in chronological sequence the emergence of settlements in the Western Sudan and Eastern Africa. Second, it explores further the question of what types of evidence must be used in reconstructing the past of Africa south of the Sahara.

Its major objectives are:

To know that Africa south of the Sahara has a long history of civilized society, one in which the European presence is just another chapter and not the beginning or essence of that history.

To know the major features of indigenous African society during the years 500-1800 A.D.

To know how to evaluate and use various types of written sources of data.

To understand the problems and methods of historical research into Africa's past.

To know that much is still not known about this period of Africa's history, and to know some of the limits of what is known.

To refine and practice the skills of intellectual inquiry.

Unit II consists of six activities, each designed to be completed in one 40-50 minute class period.

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Materials</u>
1	To introduce the study of Africa's past by beginning to test the hypothesis made in Unit I, Activity 4.	filmstrip booklet
2	To further refine this hypothesis.	booklet
3	To collect and interpret data relative to the hypothesis being tested.	overhead projector transparency B. timeline booklet
4	To collect and interpret data relative to the hypothesis being tested.	maps notes booklet

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| 5 | To analyze the data and sources of this data. | booklet
notes
timeline
maps |
| 6 | To synthesize this data into general conclusions relative to the hypothesis being tested and to apply this to an evaluation of another interpretation of this same data. | booklet
maps
timeline
notes
study guide |

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS - ACTIVITY 1

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity introduces the study of selected features of some of Africa's early indigenous kingdoms and empires. It focuses on ancient Zimbabwe, a city and center of an East African empire that flourished between 700-1600 A.D. Even though it is atypical of Africa's early kingdoms south of the Sahara, Zimbabwe does provide an entry to the study of this period in terms which are familiar to most students. There are few, indeed, that haven't read, seen or heard about ancient ruins such as Peru's Manchu Pinchu, England's Stonehenge, the pueblos of the American West or Rome's Colosseum. Study of these can provide essential clues to the nature of the civilization which produced them.

The study of Zimbabwe is designed to acquaint the students with early black Africa through the analysis of written and visual data. This activity provides an opportunity to validate hypotheses made in the preceding activity and to create an interest in learning more about early African history.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know that an advanced society existed in Africa before the arrival of Europeans.

To know significant features about ancient Zimbabwe.

To be able to read and interpret visual data.

To make inferences from data.

- B) Materials: Filmstrip: The Mystery of Zimbabwe
Booklet: HISTORY OF AFRICA

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

1) Have the students refer to last night's reading to answer the question: IF YOU WENT TO ZIMBABWE WHAT WOULD YOU EXPECT TO FIND THERE?

A fortified hill and a valley containing many ruins.

2) Project the filmstrip - The Mystery of Zimbabwe. Have the students watch it to see if it looks like they expected it would.

3) Then reshow the filmstrip more slowly. Have the students study it to answer the question: WHAT WERE THE PEOPLE LIKE WHO MADE THIS? Project the frames on the Acropolis (1-11) and talk

about what they show; reverse them as needed and have the students infer from what they see just what the people were like who built this structure. Then do the same with the rest of the filmstrip. Encourage discussion of the frames as they are projected.

Ask: WHAT DOES THIS TELL ABOUT THE PEOPLE WHO MADE THIS OR LIVED HERE? WHAT WERE THEY LIKE? List these on the board. Students should also note these characteristics in their notes. Reshow the filmstrip, if necessary, to assist in making this list.

- 4) Ask: HOW DOES THIS SQUARE WITH THE HYPOTHESIS MADE IN THE PREVIOUS CLASS ABOUT WHAT AFRICANS WERE LIKE IN 1500?
- 5) Suggest maybe these weren't Africans at all. For homework direct the students to read pp. 6-12, Who Built Zimbabwe? in the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA, in order to see what the people were really like.

Students may hypothesize that these people:

were skilled architects
had a centralized government
needed to defend themselves for
some reason (gold?).
traded with Arabia, China
and so on...

Probably not very well. They certainly appear to be quite settled--and civilized--and skilled!

UNIT II

II,1

FILMSTRIP

The Mystery of Zimbabwe

NOTES TO THE TEACHER

- 1 Title
- 2 The temple - Great Enclosure
- 3 Cross section of the Acropolis and the valley
- 4 The temple from the Acropolis
- 5 The Acropolis
- 6 Plan of the Acropolis
- 7 The Acropolis from below
- 8 Ancient ascent to the Acropolis
- 9 Ancient ascent
- 10 Main wall of the Acropolis (Wall 25' high, 14' wide, 150' long)
- 11 Wall built around rock outcrop
- 12 The valley ruins viewed from the Acropolis
- 13 Plan of the Great Enclosure
- 14 The Great Enclosure (outer wall 831' long, 31' high, up to 19' thick)
- 15 West entrance to the Great Enclosure
- 16 Close-up of the west entrance
- 17 Looking in the west entrance
- 18 Inside the main (north) entrance
- 19 Parallel passage - from the north entrance
- 20 6" x 6" drain in wall
- 21 The tower (34' high, diameter at base 17' - at top 8')
- 22 The tower (solid stone)
- 23 Trench dug in search for artifacts
- 24 Artifacts
- 25 Artifacts
- 26 Artifacts
- 27 Soapstone bird in Zimbabwe museum
- 28 Title
- 29 Model of Zimbabwe
- 30 Model of Zimbabwe
- 31 PROJECT AFRICA

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS - ACTIVITY 2

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: The study of Zimbabwe illustrates some of the difficulties of recreating any precise understanding of all of Africa's past. This activity is designed to develop an awareness of this as well as to add to the students' knowledge about Zimbabwe and its builders by analyzing several interpretations of the origins of this structure. It is a continuation of the previous activity and it also serves to introduce the further study of other early black African states, kingdoms and empires.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know that the builders of Zimbabwe were a technologically skilled and politically organized people.

To know that Zimbabwe was probably built by black Africans between 1000 A.D. and 1600 A.D.

To know that explanations or interpretations are no better than the evidence on which they stand.

To know that much is not known about Zimbabwe and that considerable research remains to be done before its full story is known.

To be able to make inferences from data.

To be able to separate fact from opinion.

To synthesize research findings into statements that explain them.

To desire to find out more about early black African kingdoms.

- B) Materials: Booklet: HISTORY OF AFRICA

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Ask: WHAT WERE THE PEOPLE LIKE WHO BUILT ZIMBABWE? Review the ideas listed in the previous class and eliminate those which the evidence in the reading directly contradicts. Encourage the students to refer to their notes in doing this. Require the students to cite evidence to support their hypotheses.

There is really little in the reading that directly describes these people. Very little is known about them. However, there is much speculation as to who they were.

Discussion of this question should lead the students to discuss the theories of who the builders were--Phoenicians or black Africans.

- 2) Have the students focus on the types of evidence cited by Keane, Bruwer and Summers. Encourage them to use the booklet in doing this. Ask: WHAT KINDS OF EVIDENCE ARE USED BY KEANE?--BY BRUWER?--BY SUMMERS?

Keane uses old documents, artifacts, coincidences, deduction, etc.

Bruwer uses deduction from what is thought to be true of the past.

Summers uses radio-carbon dating of remains, etc.

- 3) Have the students separate evidence that is fact from that which is the author's opinion. Ask: WHICH AUTHOR SEEMS TO HAVE THE BEST ARGUMENT? WHY?

Summers seems to have the best in that his opinions can be validated by other researchers using scientific techniques. The other opinions are built largely on opinion or circumstantial evidence. Yet, except for the time element, none is conclusive.

Point out the necessity in studying African history--or anything else--of being alert to separate proven fact from personal opinion. Students should be alert to the evidence one uses to support any argument

- 4) Point out the inconclusive nature of our present knowledge of who the peoples of Zimbabwe were and what they were like. Yet, suggest we do know something about them. Have the students summarize what can be said for certain about them. They should refer to the reading and the filmstrip data.

The people of Zimbabwe:

- a) built between 700-1600 A.D.
- b) were skilled craftsmen and masons
- c) used iron, gold
- d) traded with Arabs and (indirectly at least) Chinese
- e) were military oriented--or defense-minded
- f) had luxuries such as ornaments, etc.
- g) and so on...

- 5) Conclude the class by having the students compare this list with the hypothesis about what Africans were like before 1800. Ask: WHAT DO WE DO NOW?

More data is needed before a definite conclusion can be reached.

Note that it is possible that the inhabitants of Zimbabwe were not typical of Africans during the years 500-1800 A.D. This can be determined by studying some other peoples south of the Sahara during this period.

Direct the students for homework to read pp. 13-21 in the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA. As they do this they are to make a list of the kingdoms, empires and states referred to and, for each, to list the dates it originated, was at its peak of power or influence and when it disappeared.

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS - ACTIVITY 3

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity is designed to give the students practice in collecting data that will be useful in testing the hypothesis which they are investigating. In doing this they will learn more about this period of African history; they will also learn how to make a timeline and use it for analysis.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know that black Africa has a history of organized political states that goes back almost 3000 years.

To know significant features of these states, such as:

- a) They seem to cluster in certain periods of time.
- b) They were relatively short-lived.
- c) One tended to succeed another in certain areas.
- d) Each seems to be based on an individual people.

To be able to represent these on a timeline.

To be able to interpret a timeline.

To make inferences from data.

- B) Materials: overhead projector
transparency B
timeline chart - Activity 3
Booklet: HISTORY OF AFRICA

C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

-
- 1) Start the class by referring to the final listing of what the inhabitants of Zimbabwe were like that was made in the previous class. Have the students compare this to the image of these people that emerges from reading pp. 13-14 in the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA.

- 2) Ask: WHAT WAS AFRICA LIKE BETWEEN 500 and 1800 A.D.?

(Be sure to point out that these are not the only kingdoms; it would be impossible to study all in the short time available.)

Apparently it had many organized kingdoms, states and empires.

The students may note that the people seem to have been organized, civilized and skilled.

- 3) Note that it is important to clarify the nature of these states if information is to be received that will be useful in testing the hypothesis.

Distribute to each student a copy of the timeline for Activity 3. Direct them to take out the list of empires and their dates they made for homework and to draw a line representing each empire for the proper period on the timeline chart. Allow them to work in pairs but require that each student have a completed chart. (Allow as much time as needed to complete this assignment.)

- 4) Help the students check their work by projecting transparency B and clarifying any points or errors. Have the students make any corrections needed on the charts. Make corrections on the transparency also.
- 5) Ask: WHAT DOES THIS CHART TELL US ABOUT EARLY AFRICA? Turn off the overhead; have the students use their charts in answering this.

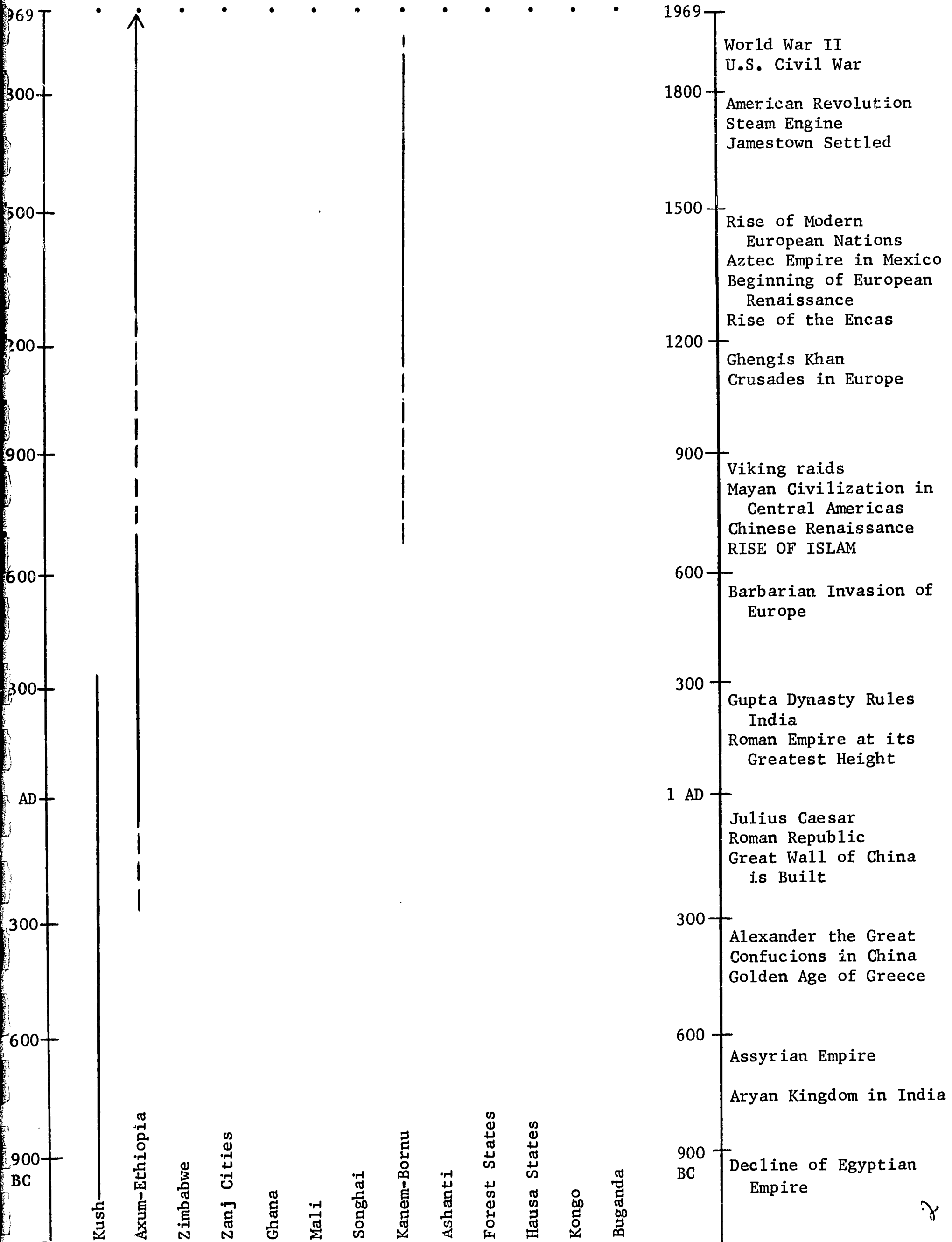
Have the students determine some of the events occurring in the rest of the world while certain African kingdoms were growing, declining or at their peaks.
(This will help them get a better time perspective on this period.)

- 6) Suggest that the class still doesn't have enough information about the people of these kingdoms to test their hypotheses. Direct them to read for homework pp. 22-27 in the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA to collect more data on this. DIRECT THEM TO BRING THEIR RESOURCE MAPS #1-10 TO THE NEXT CLASS.

The students should keep the timeline charts and bring them to the next class. Allow the students to start the reading in class if time permits.

The students should use a solid line _____ to denote the state when it was known to exist and a dotted line----- to denote it when it was thought to have been rising or disintegrating. A bracket should be used to denote the time it was at the peak of its power or influence.

The students may see that they seem to be concentrated in certain regions in certain times, are relatively short-lived, etc. But this still doesn't suggest much about the people.



BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS - ACTIVITY 4

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: The major purpose of this activity is to learn more about Africa's early political states by analyzing maps and other forms of data. In doing this the students will practice the basic skills of identifying data, grouping and generalizing. The data collected will be used to validate the hypothesis under investigation.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know significant characteristics of the number, size, location and sequence of development of Africa's early kingdoms.

To know how to analyze data by grouping it.

To recognize similarities and relationships to data.

To make inferences from data.

- B) Materials: Major African Kingdoms maps (#15-18)
Students' Resource Maps (#1-10)

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Start the class by distributing the maps (#15-18) to each student.

- a) Have them report what they see on each map. List these on the board.

(Again note that not all the kingdoms known to have existed are shown on these maps. It would have been too cluttered to read if this had been done.)

- b) Have the students suggest a way to group the data they have listed. List these on the board.

#15 6 kingdoms
mostly across Sudan
#16 10 kingdoms
Sudan and East coast
...etc.

The best way would be to group by number, location, size etc.

<u>Century</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Size, etc.</u>
12	6	across Sudan	
14	10	W. Sudan/E. Coast	
16	17	scattered	
18	18	scattered/ central	
etc.			

- 2) Ask: WHAT CONCLUSIONS CAN YOU DRAW FROM THIS INFORMATION? Require evidence to support their answers. Encourage the students to overlay one map on the other, to compare maps, and to study the items on the board. (Allow them time to think and discuss among themselves.) Have the students write these in their notes.

- 3) Have the students compare these maps to their resource maps, especially #1 and #5. WHAT INFERENCES CAN BE DRAWN?

- 4) If time permits, have the students refer to their map (#15-18), their list of conclusions and the timeline. WHAT INFERENCES CAN BE DRAWN FROM ALL THESE?

- 5) Have the students refer to the hypothesis being tested. Direct them to complete reading Part II in the readings for Unit II in the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA (pp. 27-32) for the next class. Remind them they are collecting data on what the people were like who lived in these kingdoms. Direct them to bring the newspaper THE AFRICAN WORLD to the next class.

The students may note:

- 1) The number of these states increases from 12th to 18th century.
 - 2) These states gradually occupy more of Africa as time goes on.
 - 3) The largest in area are in the Sudan.
 - 4) The largest number are in West Africa.
 - 5) In the Sudan several occupied the same area but at different times.
 - 6) Apparently some parts of Africa did not develop kingdoms.
 - 7) Kingdoms along the coast tend to be small (especially in E. Africa) while interior kingdoms are larger.
 - 8) Ethiopia lasted the longest.
 - 9) By 18th century there seems to have been a shift to the coast and south-central interior.
 - 10) The largest tend to be in grass-land savanna regions.
 - 11) There seems to be little relationship between these states and present-day boundaries.
 - 12) Ethiopia seems to be the only kingdom that conformed to its present boundary
- ...etc...

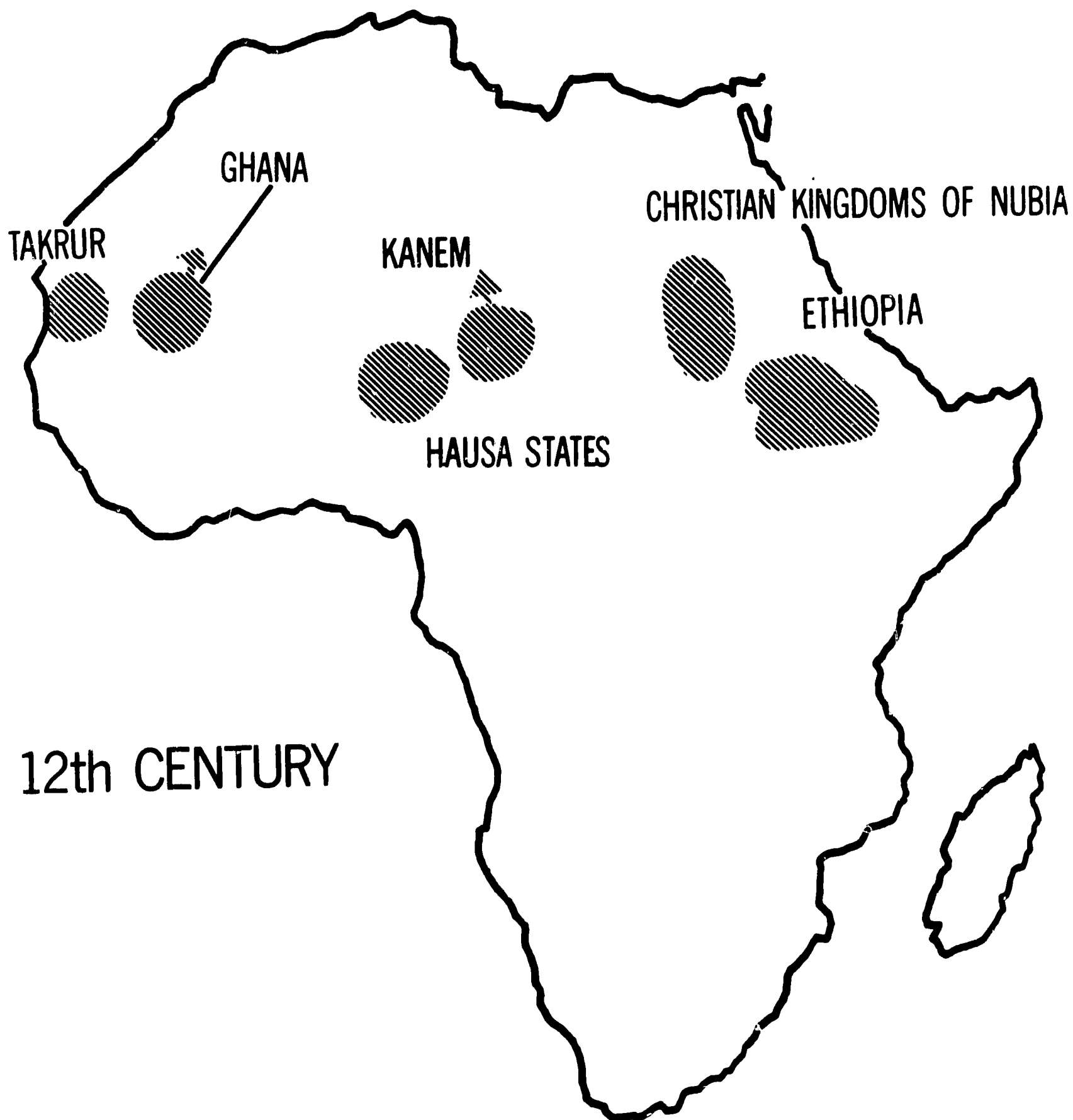
The students may note:

- 1) Africa was the home of major political states for over 1000 years.
- 2) Africa was politically organized before the arrival of Europeans.
- 3) Political units in central Africa may have developed later than in any other part of Africa.

BEFORE 1500 AFRICA WAS...
AFRICANS WERE....

MAJOR AFRICAN KINGDOMS

15



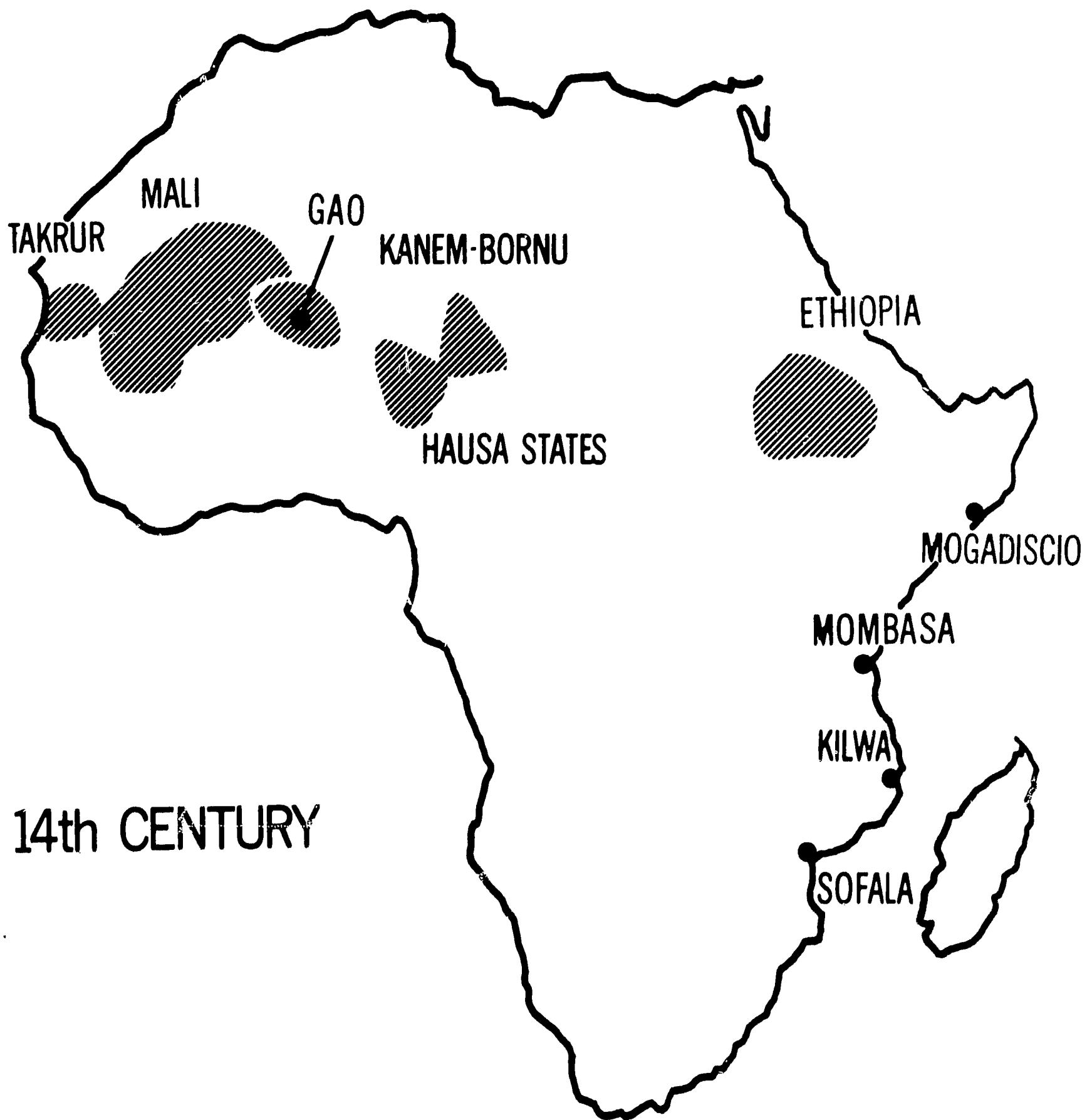
12th CENTURY

38 a.

PROJECT AFRICA
Carnegie-Mellon University
1968

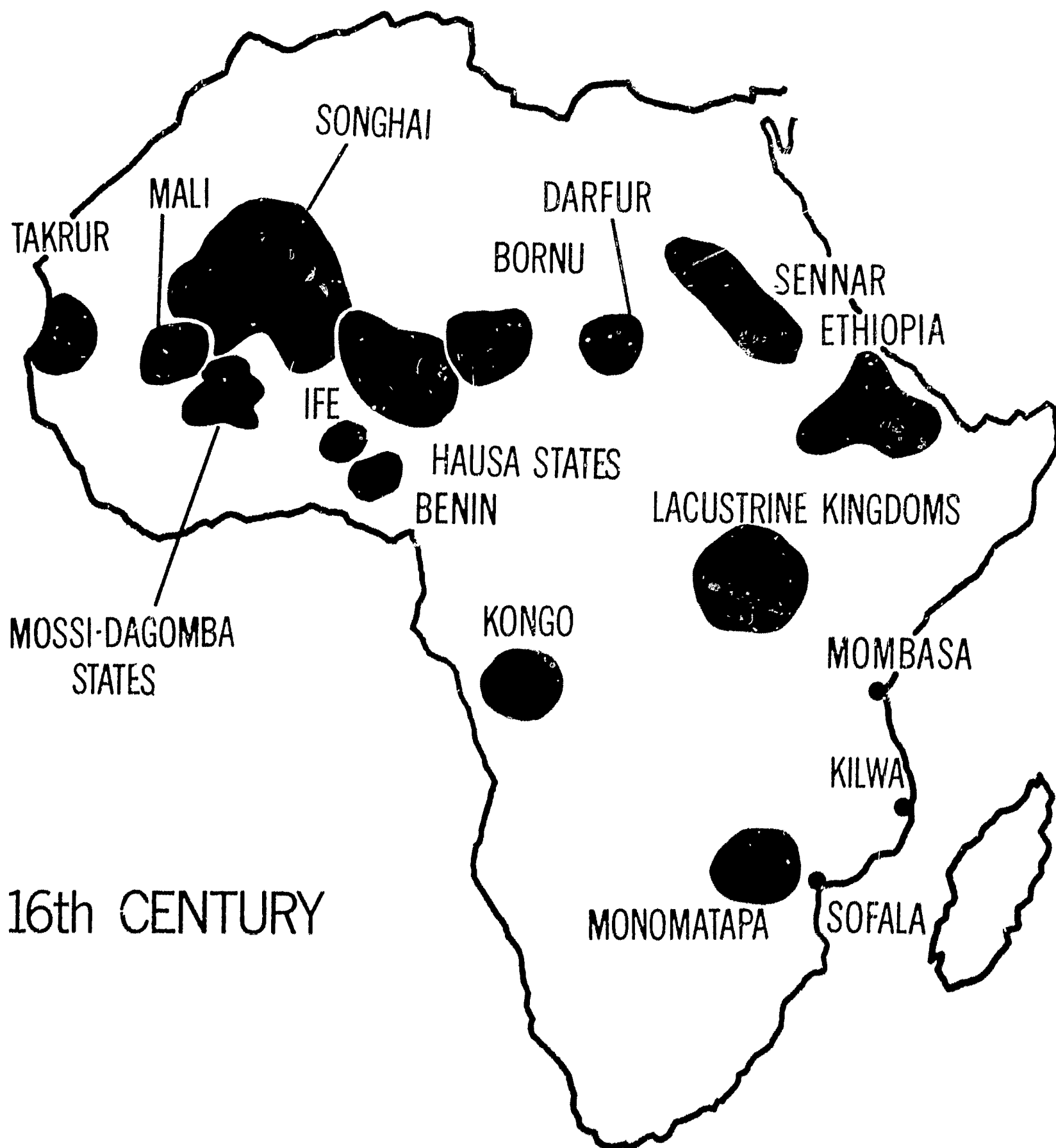
MAJOR AFRICAN KINGDOMS

16



MAJOR AFRICAN KINGDOMS

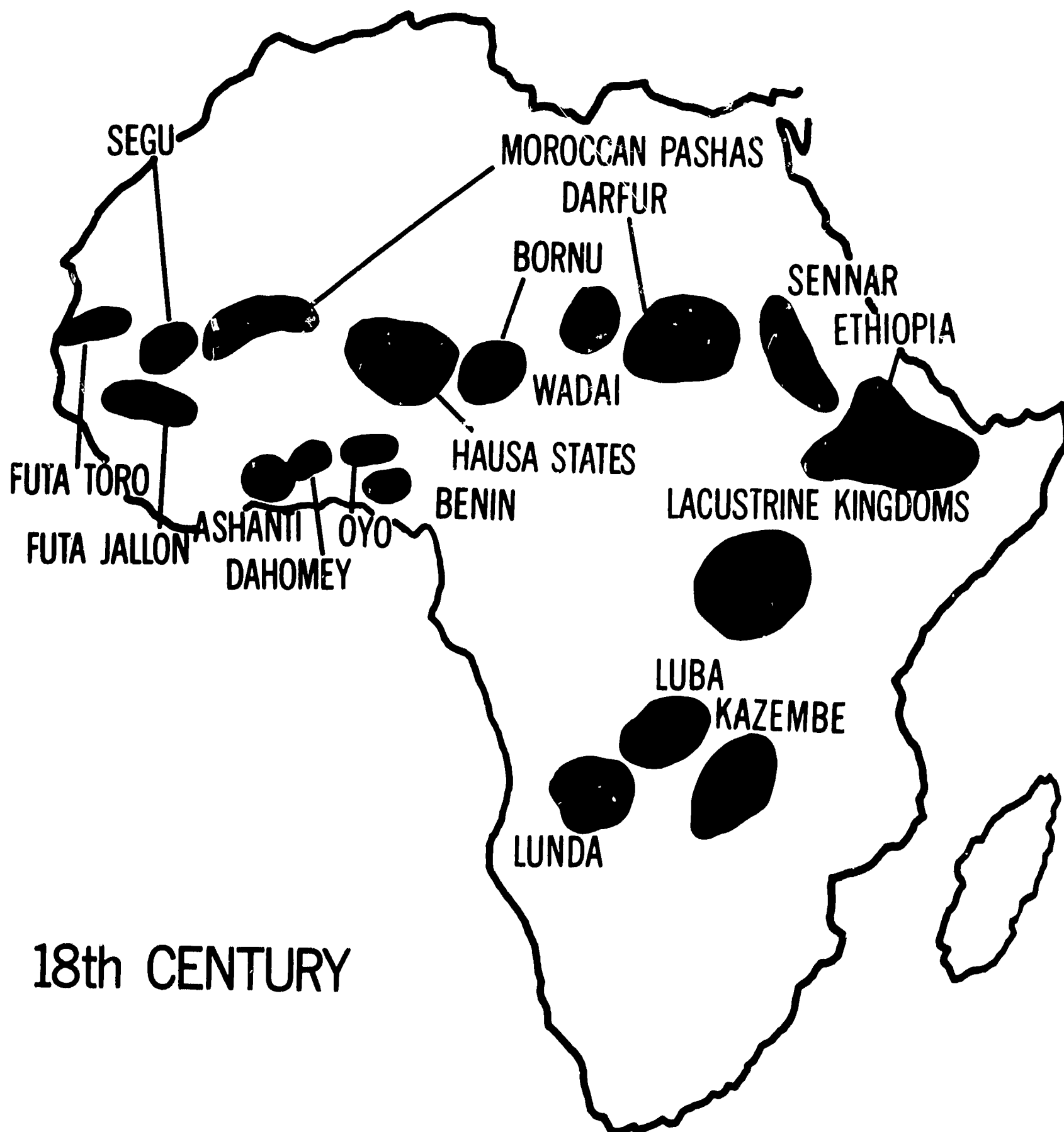
17



16th CENTURY

MAJOR AFRICAN KINGDOMS

18



18th CENTURY

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS - ACTIVITY 5

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity focuses on bringing together the data collected in the preceding activities and study. It is designed to identify the major characteristics of black Africa before 1800 preparatory to using this data to validate the hypothesis made earlier about this period. It also provides an opportunity to analyze various types of sources of data to determine their validity, reliability and utility as sources of accurate data.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know the major features of black Africa prior to 1800.

To know how to analyze documents for clues about the period in which they were written.

To know the strengths and weaknesses of primary and secondary sources.

To make inferences from data.

To synthesize data into meaningful, valid generalizations.

- B) Materials: Booklet: HISTORY OF AFRICA
student notes
timeline chart
maps #15-18
THE AFRICAN WORLD

C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Start the class by referring to the materials read in Part II of Black African Kingdoms in the HISTORY OF AFRICA booklet. Have the students take out these booklets and their reading notes and refer to them during the ensuing discussion.
- 2) Ask: WHAT WAS AFRICA LIKE DURING THE PERIOD WE HAVE BEEN STUDYING? WHAT WERE THE PEOPLE LIKE? Require specific evidence and data to support each answer. List the characteristics on the board. Students should add them to their own notes.

(If the students have difficulty developing a good list, have them skim the reading again to find additional characteristics.)

Ideas might include:

...many kingdoms and empires
strong kings
large armies--
cavalry
bows and arrows, iron weapons
some even had armor
many government officials
taxes
widespread trade in gold
kind to foreigners
artistic, talented
highly organized
were just and honest...
...etc...

Have the students examine the photo of the Benin bronze and the article on ancient cities on p.1 of THE AFRICAN WORLD. Ask: WHAT DOES IT TELL YOU ABOUT THE KINGDOM OF BENIN?

- 3) Direct attention to the reading selections (documents) themselves. Ask: WHAT DO THESE DOCUMENTS THEMSELVES--NOT THEIR CONTENTS--TELL US ABOUT AFRICA DURING THIS PERIOD?

If the students have difficulty in answering this focus on such points as:

- a) WHO ARE THE AUTHORS? WHERE ARE THEY FROM?
- b) DID THEY RECORD THEIR OWN EXPERIENCES OR SECOND-HAND INFORMATION? (Point out the differences between primary and secondary sources. Have the students comment on the values of each in getting accurate data about these people--or any subject. Ask: WHAT MAKES ONE SOURCE BETTER THAN ANOTHER?
- c) Then have them make inferences from their answers to these questions (a-b).

Students could say:

...highly organized state
...militarily oriented
...skilled craftsmen in metal working, construction
...etc.

Students may say:

...Africans were illiterate.
...They came in contact with many foreign peoples.
...The Sahara was not a barrier.
...etc.

Students should note

that the authors are Arabs or others who were not the people being written about.

Some are records of direct observation (Ibn Battuta, Leo Africanus, etc.) but others record only what they found out from others (Al-Bakri).

Possible bases for judging a source might include:

- a) Evident ethnocentric bias.
- b) First-hand accounts better than second-hand accounts.
- c) Contemporary accounts better than accounts written long after an event.

...Apparently the Africans themselves were illiterate.
...Many foreign peoples travelled and traded in the Sudan and along the East African coast.
...Apparently little foreign travel into Africa before 1000 but
...Many people knew about and travelled to Africa before it was "discovered" by Europeans.
...etc.

- 4) Have the students examine both lists and finish copying them in their notes.
- 5) For homework, the students are to examine this list of characteristics, arrange them in groups of similar items and then make a list of what they feel are the five most important characteristics of Africa before Europeans came in contact with it. This list should be brought to the next class as should all notes, timeline, map and the student booklet.

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS - ACTIVITY 6

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity concludes the study of black Africa prior to its direct contact with Western Europe and eventually the Americas. It is designed to tie-up the study of this period in African history by having the students make meaningful generalizations about it. In doing this it is intended that the students come to realize the inaccuracy of the commonly held views that "Africa has no history" and that Africans were "uncivilized savages" until the white man brought civilization to them.

The Specific objectives of this activity are:

To know that black Africans between 500 A.D. and 1800 A.D. developed highly organized societies that engaged in extensive, long-distance trade.

To know that black Africans had continued and extensive contact with other peoples--including Muslim Berbers, Arabs, Indians--between 500 and 1800 A.D. and that this contact had significant impact on their ways of living.

To be able to synthesize data into a valid general statement which explains this data in relation to the original hypothesis.

To apply this knowledge to the evaluation of another general statement which purports also to explain the same data.

- B) Materials: Student notes and list
Booklet: HISTORY OF AFRICA
Study Guide for Activity 6
maps

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

-
- 1) Start by recalling that the class had studied one African kingdom--Zimbabwe--in some detail. Ask: WERE THE PEOPLE OF ZIMBABWE TYPICAL OF MOST OF THE PEOPLE SOUTH OF THE SAHARA 500 A.D. TO 1800 A.D. OR WERE THEY QUITE DIFFERENT? IN WHAT WAYS? Students should be encouraged to refer to their notes and booklets during the entire activity.

Ways in which different may include:

- a) They built of stone while others did not (although people build with whatever material is easiest to secure).
b) They constructed large, fortified cities after a certain time (like Kano?).

- 2) Ask: HOW DOES THE HYPOTHESIS WE FIRST MADE STAND UP UNDER THIS INVESTIGATION? WHY? Require specific proof.
- 3) Ask: WHAT WERE THE MOST IMPORTANT CHARACTERISTICS OF AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA DURING THIS PERIOD? The students should refer to the lists they prepared for homework.

When the idea of trade or communications with outsiders is brought up, point out ideas as well as goods were exchanged.

Ask: IN WHAT WAYS DID THESE OUTSIDE CONTACTS INFLUENCE AFRICANS OR THEIR HISTORY?

Ways in which similar may include:

- a) conducted trade
- b) had an army
- c) divine, absolute king
- d) strong central government
- e) different social classes
- ...etc...

Before extensive contact with Europeans, Africa was...and Africans were....

Emphasis should be placed on:

- 1) highly developed political systems-- with
 - a) absolute kings
 - b) laws and courts
 - c) armies
 - d) taxes
 - e) government officials
 - f) provinces
 - g) numerous states, kingdoms
 - ...etc....
- 2) Well organized long distance trade
 - a) in many products
 - b) with Berbers, Arabs, Chinese, Indians, Europe, Egypt
 - c) using special media of exchange (gold, shells, etc.)
 - d) involving large quantities of goods
 - ...etc....

Muslim influence can be seen in:

- ...rise of empires based on military strength in western Sudan after 1100.
- ...rapid growth in learning and formal education (Timbuktu).
- ...well organized, strong central governments (Sudan).
- ...religion of the western Sudan (Moslem).
- ...increased trade.

Arab influence can be seen in increased trade. Both Muslim and Arab penetration led to increased rivalry and wars.

Other items that may be cited in answer to question 3 may be:

Africans had:

- ...well-established religions--Muslim and indigenous.
- ...art, music, learning.
- ...systems of money, weights and measures.
- ...social classes.
- ...value systems that stressed justice, honor, fairness.
- ...farmers, herders, merchants, bankers, craftsmen, traders--government officials, religious leaders, teachers.
- ...etc.

Before extensive contact with Europeans, Africans were (or Africa was)....

- 4) Conclude the unit by having each student write a sentence rewording the hypothesis in keeping with the findings of his research.
(These may be rather long sentences.)

- 5) For homework, distribute a copy of the study guide for Activity 6 to each student. Direct him to study the statement thereon and then write an essay answering the question.

- a) The length should be specified by the teacher--2 to 3 paragraphs for slower students or perhaps 2 to 3 pages for the better students.
- b) In all cases specific data should be given to support their points of view.

- 6) Each student should bring his maps #15-18 to the next class.

The statements quoted on the guide are those of Professor T. Walter Wallbank of the University of Southern California and Dr. Cornelis W. de Kiewiet, formerly professor of history at Cornell University and President of the University of Rochester.

STUDY GUIDE - ACTIVITY 6

SEVERAL YEARS AGO TWO UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS WROTE:

Africa is a land with little or no history. South of the Sahara the indigenous peoples cannot look back on any golden age, on any truly great civilization....It...has always been poor and powerless. The political and cultural emptiness of the African past is (the most important characteristic of its history)....The African produced no alphabets, no adequate system of numerals, no calendar or exact measurements, no currency, plough or wheel. He built few towns and created nothing that could endure....

(T. Walter Wallbank, Contemporary Africa: Continent in Transition. Princeton: D. Van Nostrand and Company, Inc., 1964, pp. 14-15.)

DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THESE STATEMENTS? WHY?

AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

TOPIC II

UNIT III

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE

A TEACHING GUIDE

PROJECT AFRICA

Carnegie-Mellon University

1969

46 a

UNIT III

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE

The discovery of Africa by Europe was a discovery for Europeans--not for Africans. Africans had dealt with non-Africans in many parts of the world for years preceding this event. Nonetheless, this "discovery" had far-reaching results in Africa and, indeed, in the entire western world. It brought to Africa a new people--aggressive, essentially materialistic, technologically advanced, convinced that their way of life was superior. It stimulated a trade that greatly affected Africa south of the Sahara and the western world--a trade in human beings.

This unit focuses on this slave trade. Its emphasis is, however, on the impact of this trade on Africa. It is concerned neither with the conditions of the trans-Atlantic slave trade nor with the factors outside of Africa that stimulated or hampered it. It is, rather, primarily concerned with answering the major question of why Africans are the way they are today by examining the ways in which the slave trade may have affected those Africans who remained in Africa and were not taken away as slaves. It is concerned with assessing the ways in which this period of history may have shaped the subsequent development of the peoples of this region and the degree to which it may have shaped their present-day attitudes, ways of living and beliefs.

The unit does provide background information about the origins, progress and eventual abolition of the slave trade, both in West and East Africa. Its major emphasis, however, is on an analysis of original documents and secondary sources selected to reveal a variety of ways in which this trade affected Africa. Examination of the data contained in these documents will help develop a realistic picture of the nature of indigenous African slavery; it will identify evidence to show that slavery existed in Africa south of the Sahara long before the Europeans and Arabs arrived and that it continued for some years after the slave trade was abolished. This study will make apparent that the actual enslaving was done by Arabs and, more usually, by the Africans themselves--sometimes for money, sometimes to increase their own power, and sometimes for fear that if they didn't subject their neighbors then they themselves might one day be enslaved.

The materials included in this unit have been selected in order to help students realize that the slave trade had an impact far beyond the most obvious effect of depopulation. It led, in many areas, to the destruction of villages and fields, to famine and to entire communal migrations; it led to increased internal strife and war, to shifts in political power, to political upheaval and fragmentation; it stimulated inter-tribal suspicions and hostility as well as fear and distrust of foreigners--especially Europeans, Americans and Arabs; it gave birth to an African elite whose wealth and power were built on foreign arms, rum and cheap manufactured goods. New food stuffs were introduced and soon became dietary staples in many regions. Western medical knowledge was gradually applied to the control and later eradication of numerous diseases that often ravaged the continent. A trade which originally was only incidental to an indigenous institution that served primarily social and political purposes, the slave

trade eventually became so complex and widespread that its continuance was by the mid-1800's an economic necessity for many. And it was this change that led directly to the European penetration of the interior of the continent and its subsequent partition.

Few of the materials included in this unit are by Africans. Consequently, students should be able to speculate about the difficulties of ever recreating a precise record of the African past. They may also infer something about the nature and extent of the African way of life during this period. Moreover, there are a number of different feelings revealed in these documents and sources--the perceptive student will note a tone of outrageous indignation in several selections, a feeling that typified much of the nineteenth century abolition movement. Others may find evidence of how the slave trade worked to almost dehumanize its participants--slaver and enslaved alike. Many of the authors describe or discuss events that may shock or disgust and do so without any apparent such feeling or any feeling of apology or remorse; some of this evidence will thus suggest that this trade actually worked to dehumanize a variety of peoples. The results of this may be seen in certain areas of world society even today.

The major objectives of this unit are:

To know the various ways in which the slave trade affected Africa south of the Sahara.

To be familiar with the general origins and characteristics of the African slave trade.

To be able to determine the relevant from the irrelevant.

To be able to make inferences from data.

To be able to synthesize data into meaningful wholes.

To be able to formulate hypotheses and modify them in the light of new data.

To be able to express oneself clearly and intelligently in writing.

This unit consists of five activities:

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Material</u>
1	To investigate the European discovery of Africa	study guide maps overhead transparency C
2	To introduce the study of the African slave trade and to hypothesize about its impact on Africa	booklet transparency C activity sheet #2 transparency D overhead

49/50

- | | | |
|---|---|--------------------------|
| 3 | To collect and analyze data
about the impact of this trade | chart
booklet |
| 4 | To develop conclusions about
the slave trade. | booklet
student notes |
| 5 | To apply these conclusions
to the evaluation of new data | booklet
student notes |

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE - ACTIVITY 1

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: The "discovery" of Africa by Europe was an important event in the life of the peoples south of the Sahara for the consequences were of far-reaching importance to them. How and why Europeans made this discovery is more properly a part of European history and not the subject of concern here. But it is an exciting story and is briefly presented in this activity to provide the background for this and succeeding units.

This activity is intended to establish some reference points for the study of the impact of the slave trade on Africa and its peoples. It also provides a change of pace for the students by giving them an opportunity to work with some maps and use an overhead projection.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know in general the sequence of events that led to Europe's "discovery" of Africa south of the Sahara.

To make inferences from data.

To hypothesize about the cause of changes in African kingdoms and states between 1500 and the 1700's.

- B) Materials: Study Guide - Unit II, Activity 6 (to be handed in).
Maps #15-18
Maps #22 and 23
Overhead projector
Transparency C

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

-
- 1) Start the class by asking for comments on the quotation to which the students directed their essay (homework assignment). Allow a number to voice their opinions but require them to substantiate their views with data.

Clarify any factual errors.
Have one or two students summarize in a sentence or two what the group believes to be true about Africa before 1800.
(Allow only 10 minutes for this.)

- 2) Introduce this new unit by having the students place their 4 maps #15-18 side by side on their desks.

a) Ask: WHAT CHANGES TAKE PLACE IN THE LOCATION AND SIZE OF THESE KINGDOMS AND STATES BETWEEN THE 1100's AND 1700's?--ESPECIALLY IN WEST AFRICA AND ALONG THE EAST COAST?

b) Ask: WHAT INFERENCES CAN YOU MAKE FROM THIS?...WHAT CAUSED THESE CHANGES?...WHY?

c) WHEN DID THIS OCCUR?

- 3) Point out that about 1450 a number of things occurred to make some Europeans want to find out if they really could sail around Africa (some wanted a new way to the rich trade of India and the Indies in order to get around the monopolistic trade arrangements that the merchants of the Italian city states had with the Turks who controlled the trade routes at the eastern end of the Mediterranean) and at the same time they developed equipment that enabled them to try--the compass, square sail, rudder, sextant, larger ships etc. So, under the leadership of the kings of Portugal a number of Portuguese sea captains began to explore Africa's coast.

The students should note:

- 1) In West Africa they gradually increase in number, decrease in size and shift toward the Guinea coast.
- 2) In East Africa the coastal states do not appear after the 16th century and neither does Monomatapa.

Something happened, obviously.
The students may suggest:

- 1) Moslem wars in the Western Sudan forced people to seek sanctuary in the southern rainforests; or
- 2) Something happened to attract them to the coast in the West-- someone to trade with--Europeans arrived!
- 3) Perhaps Europeans, finding cities in the east, destroyed them in their search for gold! (see booklet p.21)

Perhaps in the 1500's.

- 4) Project Transparency C and describe how these voyages gradually helped fill in the outlines of the African continent (the first explorers generally went no further than they did because of fear or superstition but occasionally shortages of provisions or some discovery led them to stop and return). Attention should be focused on what was discovered and charted rather than the names of the explorers themselves.

Note that once it was discovered that Africa could be circum-navigated Portuguese, Dutch and other ships began to sail there regularly.

Point out that some of these sea captains landed along the way and collected goods to take home. In 1441 one such captain returned to Portugal with nine Africans aboard. They were sold as servants. Soon the wealthy landowners in Portugal sought more Africans to work their fields and serve in their households. Thus began a trade in slaves between Africa and other regions bordering the Atlantic. It had, of course, been going on in the eastern part of Africa for years before this. But once this started in the West, Europe became very much interested in Africa--especially West Africa.

Direct the students to read for their next class pp. 35-44. The African Slave Trade - Part I in the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA. As they do this they should note who was involved, when it occurred and which parts of Africa were most involved.

The students should bring their copies of the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA to the next class.

This transparency is
"Exploring the Coast,"
(Transparency No. 21) in
the series World History:
Unit I - Sub-Saharan
Africa. Morristown, N.J.:
Keuffel & Esser Co., 1966.

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE - ACTIVITY 2

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity introduces the study of the impact of the slave trade in Africa. It offers a general overview of the origins and development of this slave trade as it was conducted in the centuries after Africa had been opened to European exploitation; it also focuses on the relationship between certain aspects of American development and this trade. In doing this, it provides a lead in to the study of documentary evidence regarding the impact of this trade on Africans who remained in Africa.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know the major features of the African slave trade--including its centers in Africa and which nations were involved and when.

To know that the profit motive was a significant reason for engaging in this trade.

To become aware of the relationship of the African slave trade to the early development of the United States.

To read and interpret visual data.

To make inferences from data.

To pose questions designed to guide investigation into data about the impact of the slave trade.

- B) Materials: Booklet: HISTORY OF AFRICA
Transparency D
Activity Sheet #2 - Estimated costs...
Transparency E
Overhead projector

C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Review quickly some of the facts regarding the slave trade in Africa:
 - a) WHEN DID IT START?
 - b) WHERE WAS IT LOCATED TO 1500?
 - c) WHAT NON-AFRICAN NATIONS WERE INVOLVED TO 1500?
 - d) AFTER 1500 WHERE WAS IT CENTERED?

(Refer to the maps in the reading to clarify locations of cities, kingdoms, etc. Allow only several minutes for this.)

- a) It existed in Africa--as elsewhere in the world--as far back as recorded history goes.
- b) Before 1500 it centered on East Coast, across the Sahara and within Africa itself.
- c) Before 1500 Arabs, Romans, Greeks etc. were involved.
- d) After 1500 it centered on West African coast and East Africa and interior of these areas.

- 2) Project transparency D (The African Slave Trade). Point out that this depicts the trade in slaves after 1500. Show overlay #1 (16th century). Ask: WHAT DOES THIS TELL YOU ABOUT THIS TRADE? Do the same for each overlay.

a) Project the complete transparency. Ask: WHERE BESIDES THE U.S. WERE SLAVES TAKEN? (It may be helpful to project the overlays slowly to facilitate this.)

b) Ask: WHO CONTROLLED THESE REGIONS?

- 3) Distribute the mimeographed activity sheet #2 entitled Estimated Costs and Receipts of a Slaving Expedition. Ask: WHY WOULD PEOPLE ENGAGE IN A SLAVE TRADE? After accepting an answer or two, direct the students to COMPLETE THE ACCOUNT SHEET by computing the missing numbers.

Project transparency E. Ask the class to volunteer the numbers to fill in the blanks. When completed, ask again: WHY WOULD PEOPLE ENGAGE IN THE SLAVE TRADE?

- 4) Have the class make some general conclusions about the Atlantic phase of the African slave trade.

This transparency is "African Slave Trade" (Transparency No. 26) in the series World History: Unit I - Sub-Saharan Africa, Morristown, N.J.: Keuffel & Esser Co., 1966.

Answers may include:

- a) Part of the trade was between Africa and the New World.
- b) It seems to have involved Spain and Portugal and their American colonies at first.
- c) Some slaves may have gone to Europe, too.
- d) The thickness of the lines might relate to volume; if so, the peak came in the 18th century. and so on....

Answers should include:

Central and South America

West Indies

Europe

Turkey

Mediterranean Coast

India

Arabia

Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, Britain, Turks

A guess might be--
...because it was profitable!

For profit!

These conclusions should make reference to:

When it was conducted.
Who was involved.
Why it was conducted.
What parts of Africa were affected.

- 5) Suggest the class examine the results of the slave trade--on Africa, on those left behind--to see if it in any way affected Africa's late development and the way it is today.
 - a) Have the students refer to the quotations on the last several pages of last night's assignment (booklet, pp. 43-44)
Ask: ARE THESE OPINIONS SIMILAR OR DIFFERENT? IN WHAT WAYS?
 - b) Ask: HOW CAN WE ACCOUNT FOR THESE DIFFERENCES?
 - c) Ask: WHICH SHOULD WE BELIEVE? WHY?
- 6) Suggest then that they treat them only as hypotheses--someone's ideas but not necessarily the "whole truth." Ask: WHAT DO WE NEED TO DO TO SEE WHICH ONE IS CORRECT?
 - a) Ask: IF THE SECOND HYPOTHESIS IS CORRECT, WHAT KIND OF EVIDENCE SHOULD WE EXPECT TO FIND?
 - b) If time permits, ask: IF THE FIRST HYPOTHESIS IS CORRECT, WHAT KIND OF EVIDENCE SHOULD WE EXPECT TO FIND?
- 7) Direct the students to read the documents on pp. 45-55 of the HISTORY OF AFRICA to find evidence that will support one or the other of these two statements (hypotheses). They should list this evidence in their notes and bring the booklet and notes to the next class.

They are different in that one feels the slave trade helped Africa while the other feels it hurt Africa.

Perhaps one is the work of a scholar, the other of a propagandist. Or, perhaps the authors have different frames of reference. Or, maybe they used different data.

The students should question whether either should be believed as the "whole truth."

We need more evidence--first-hand data--about the impact of the slave trade.

Evidence of declining population, cheap products sold to Africans, wars and fighting...etc.

Evidence of wealthy Africans, rise of new nations, trade in other goods grows...etc.

NOTES TO THE TEACHER

ESTIMATED COSTS AND PROFIT OF A SLAVING EXPEDITION *

EXPENDITURES

Cost of vessel and stores	\$25,000
Cost of 500 Negroes at \$50 each	25,000
Loss of 10% of slaves at sea	2,500
Wages to crew	30,000
"Blood money" (bribes to Spanish officials) at \$120 per slave for 450 slaves	54,000
	<hr/>
OPERATING COSTS	\$136,500
12 months interest on capital to finance voyage borrowed at 10%	<hr/> 13,650
TOTAL COST OF EXPEDITION	\$150,150

RECEIPTS

Sale of 450 slaves at \$1200	\$540,000
TOTAL RECEIPTS	\$540,000
TOTAL COST	<hr/> 150,150
NET PROFIT	\$389,850
% PROFIT	201%

*Peter Duignan and Clarence Clendenen, The United States and The African Slave Trade: 1619 - 1862. Stanford: The Hoover Institution, 1963, p. 59.

ESTIMATED COSTS AND PROFIT OF A SLAVING EXPEDITION

EXPENDITURES

Cost of vessel and stores	\$25,000
---------------------------	----------

Cost of 500 slaves at \$50 each	_____
---------------------------------	-------

Loss of 10% of slaves at sea	_____
------------------------------	-------

Wages to crew	30,000
---------------	--------

"Blood money" (bribes to Spanish officials) at \$120 per slave for 450 slaves	_____

OPERATING COSTS

12 months interest on capital borrowed to finance expedition at 10%	_____

TOTAL COST OF EXPEDITION

RECEIPTS

Sale of 450 slaves at \$1200 each	_____
-----------------------------------	-------

TOTAL RECEIPTS	_____
----------------	-------

TOTAL COST	_____

NET PROFIT	_____
------------	-------

% PROFIT	_____
----------	-------

EXPENDITURES

COST OF VESSEL & STORES	\$25,000
500 SLAVES @ \$50	_____
LOSS OF 10% OF SLAVES AT SEA	_____
WAGES TO CREW	30,000
BLOOD MONEY @ \$120 FOR 450 SLAVES	_____ _____
OPERATING COSTS	_____
12 MONTHS INTEREST ON CAPITAL BORROWED AT 10%	_____ _____
TOTAL COST OF EXPEDITION	_____

RECEIPTS

SALE OF 450 SLAVES @ \$1200	_____
TOTAL RECEIPTS	_____
TOTAL COST	_____ _____
NET PROFIT	_____
% PROFIT	_____

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE - ACTIVITY 3

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity involves an external analysis of the documentary evidence being used to investigate the impact of slavery in order to determine, from data about these documents, something about the nature of the slave trade and, indeed, about Africa itself in the period 1000 to 1900 A.D. It is designed to assist students to make inferences from data and to generalize on the basis of these inferences. It is also intended to corroborate much of what was determined in preceding study.

The objectives of this activity are:

To know significant features of slavery and the slave trade in Africa.

To know selected characteristics of African history during this period 1000-1900 A.D.

To know that most written sources about this period are by non-Africans.

To make inferences from data.

To apply the techniques of cataloging, classifying, and interpreting to new data.

- B) Materials: Chart: Analysis of Documents on the African Slave Trade
HISTORY OF AFRICA

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

1. Start the class by having the students point out the essence of each of the two hypotheses under investigation. Ask: WHICH OF THESE DID THE DATA SUPPORT BEST? WHY? Require the students to give the evidence that supports their view. List it in two columns on the board.

- 2) Have the students focus on the second sentence in each hypothesis (p.43 of the booklet). Ask: WHAT WAS SLAVERY IN AFRICA TRADITIONALLY LIKE? WHAT COULD A SLAVE DO OR NOT DO?

The students should note that there is evidence of
...slavery existing a long time
...war, fighting, violence
...destruction of villages
...etc

Traditionally slavery was rarely harsh. Slaves often lived and worked with and eventually even married into the families of their masters.

Ask: HOW DID ONE TRADITIONALLY
BECOME A SLAVE IN AFRICA--
BEFORE THE ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE?

- 3) Describe briefly to the students--
if they do not know--the nature
of slavery in the Americas: forced
plantation labor, breeding and
selling of people as slaves,
slave codes etc.
- 4) Suggest that perhaps one reason
for the difference in these two
hypotheses lies in the data used.
Remind the students that no con-
clusion is any better than the
evidence used to support it.

Distribute to each student a copy
of the chart Analysis of Documents
on the African Slave Trade.

Direct them each to complete
the chart now by referring to
the brief introductory comments
that precede the documents of
Part II in the reading pp.45-62.

- 5) When the students have completed
their charts pair them with the
person sitting next to them and
have them determine 3 things
about the African slave trade
shown by the information on their
chart.
- 6) When they have completed this,
have a number of volunteers tell
one of the things they have
inferred from this chart. Write
these on the board.

By capture in war, as punishment for
certain crimes, to pay a debt, to
avoid starvation.

Inferences may include:

There was slavery and a slave trade
before Europeans were ever involved
in Africa.

Slavery continued in Africa after
the Europeans abolished the Atlantic
slave trade.

The slave trade seems to have
centered in West Africa.

The high point of the trade seems
to have been in the 1700's and 1800's.

* There are relatively few African-
authored documents--most evidently
could not yet write.

- 7) When students note this,* ask:
HOW MIGHT THIS FACT AFFECT THE
HYPOTHESES WE ARE INVESTIGATING?

...There is little here written
by Africans themselves--so we
never really can know how it
affected them.

...Since few authors are Africans
there is no sympathetic treat-
ment of this impact.

...There is little here that really
deals directly with the impact
on Africa of this trade--it
seems only incidental to most
documents.

Thus the authors of these hypotheses
may have had to deal with little
data, make many inferences and
never really can see what the
African feels the impact was.

- 8) Suggest that the students keep
these ideas in mind as they
finish reading the documents on
pp.55-62. As they do this
they should add to their lists
of evidence those items that
support one or the other of the
hypotheses being tested. All
should bring their booklets
HISTORY OF AFRICA to the next
class.

ANALYSIS OF DOCUMENTS ON THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE

NUMBER	DATE OR PERIOD	AUTHOR'S NATIONALITY	AREA OF AFRICA DEALT WITH
I	1067	Arab	.. West
II	1100-1200's	African	West
III			
IV			
V			
VI			
VII			
VIII			
IX			
X			
XI			
XII			
XIII			
XIV	1839	British	West
XV	1890's	African (told to another person)	West

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE - ACTIVITY 4

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity is designed to identify and evaluate the impact of the slave trade on Africa and Africans. It requires the students to describe and analyze significant ways in which this trade affected people and their future on this continent. In so doing it offers them opportunities to make evaluative judgements and also to evaluate the judgements of recognized scholar-observers of this same period.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know significant ways in which the African slave trade affected Africans and Africa.

To know that this trade benefitted some and hurt others.

To make inferences from data.

To make meaningful generalizations.

- B) Materials: booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA
student notes

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Start the class by asking:
WHAT, IF ANYTHING, WAS THE
DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE SLAVE
TRADE IN WEST AFRICA AND THAT
IN EAST AFRICA?

WEST

Slaves enslaved
mostly by other
Africans.

Massive trade
developed after
1500 and ended
in 1860's.

Slaves ended up
in the Americas.

etc.

EAST

Slaves enslaved by
other Africans and
Arabs.

Trade had gone on
before 1500 and
lasted after 1860's.

Slaves ended up in
Arab lands or
Portuguese colonies.

- 2) Ask a student to tell what he
or she considers to be the
most significant way the slave
trade affected Africa--and why
it is significant. List the
items on the board.

The list should include:
intertribal war
depopulation
famine
destruction of homes, etc.
broken families

loss of labor supply
 rise of a class of wealthy
 Africans--merchants
 disregard for human life
 distrust of whites, Arabs
 incentive to European exploration
 ...etc....

- 3) Ask if anyone disagrees. Have them explain what they think the most significant impact was and why it was significant. Add this to the list.

Continue this until all the results are listed. If necessary, have the students consult their notes or the reading to find other ways Africa was affected.

When the students discuss depopulation have them refer to resource map #8 (population distribution) and note the large concentration in West Africa. Ask them to explain this.)

- 4) Have the students examine each item on the list to determine who it helped and who it hurt and why.

- 5) Refer the students to the two hypotheses being evaluated. Ask: WHICH ONE HAS THE BEST SUPPORTING EVIDENCE IN THE DOCUMENTS WE STUDIED? Require reasons.

After discussing their opinions as time permits assign the students to read PART III of THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE pp. 63-66 in the booklet and be prepared to support one or the other of the positions on pp. 43-44.

For example: intertribal war hurt losers but gave some Africans more power; it hurt most by making life quite uncertain and precarious--and it led to famine, migration, depopulation etc.

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE - ACTIVITY 5

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity concludes the study of the African slave trade. It is designed to tie-up this study by developing generalizations about the impact of this trade and the degree to which it benefited or hurt Africans. It requires study of documents as well as evaluations made by scholar-observers.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know the most significant ways in which the slave trade affected Africa--and the world.

To make inferences from data.

To evaluate "expert" opinions in the light of historical inquiry.

To synthesize data into meaningful generalizations that explain it.

- B) Materials: booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Refer to the selections studied for homework. Have the students report briefly the position of each. Ask: WHAT DOES EACH SAY WERE THE MAJOR RESULTS (FOR AFRICA) OF THE SLAVE TRADE?

Students should add these to the list in their notes.

Davidson stresses economic results and problems of war, political fragmentation and internal division.

Duignan and Clendenen indicate how the slave trade was typical of many attitudes of the times that were not limited to Africa. They stress contributions of this trade to Africa (introduction of food crops) and play down the inhumane, disastrous effects of this trade.

The results they list are:

...economic impact
loss of labor
replacement of local craftsmen
create rich group of slave traders

...political impact
warfare
disintegration
rivalries
rise of new empires, destruction
of others

- 2) Focus on the essay by Duignan and Clendenen. Ask the students to evaluate it as solid discussion of the impact of the slave trade in Africa. Require evidence for opinions expressed.

- a) Have them evaluate the ideas expressed in 3rd sentence of the 1st paragraph and again in the next to last paragraph--that this trade "gave the slaves new opportunities in the Americas."
- b) Have them look for ethnocentric biases and one-sided evaluative opinions.

- 3) Ask: WOULD EITHER OF THESE AUTHORS SUPPORT ONE OF THE HYPOTHESES WE HAVE BEEN INVESTIGATING? WHY?

Ask: WHICH HAS THE BEST EVIDENCE IN SUPPORT OF IT? WHY?

- 4) Ask: WHO BENEFITTED THE MOST? WHY?

...introduced
new tools
new food crops
new manufactured goods
missionaries

...reduced problems of
overpopulation
enable people to escape diseases,
wars

...helped the world
developed New World
economic growth in Europe

The students may say--

...This is only an apology--an excuse; it keeps saying "this isn't so bad because things like this happened elsewhere, too!"

...It really isn't about the slave trade at all--it's about immigrants, etc.

...Does introducing new crops balance the loss of millions of human beings?

...What opportunities? A slave in Africa had more opportunities than one in the Americas!

...Africans escaped diseases, war in Africa but gave up freedom--and not of their own free will either!

Davidson might support B; the other would support A. As a matter of fact, these are merely more elaborate versions of A and B!

...Local Africans who engaged in the trade and made money

...Local chiefs who used guns to destroy rivals and gain power

Ask: WHO WAS HURT THE MOST?
WHY?

Have the students summarize
the impact of the slave trade
on Africa. They should write
these statements in their notes.

Direct the students attention
to the final paragraph of both
essays pp. 64,66 of the
HISTORY OF AFRICA booklet.

Ask: WHAT ARE THESE ABOUT?
WHAT DO THEY HAVE IN COMMON

- 5) Point out that European interest in the African interior grows in the early 1800's. This will be the center of study in the next unit. There is no homework.

...European, Arab and American
planters, merchants, shippers
who made money

...European economy which used
products of slave labor

...African people via introduction
of food crops (this is almost
incidental).

...Those enslaved!

...Those whose property was destroyed,
homes and families broken up

...Those killed in process of getting
slaves

...etc....

Students should realize that the
trade had far-reaching impact all
over the world as well as in Africa;
good things happened as well as bad.
But the impact in Africa was not
good for Africans in general.

The essence of these is that the
slave trade opened the way for
European penetration and eventual
occupation of the continent by:

...getting Europe interested in
abolishing the slave trade and
to do this Europe had to penetrate
the interior to stop the trade at
its source.

...making Europe curious as to what
was in Africa.

...breaking up African kingdoms and
thus weakening them so there was
no significant resistance.

...etc....

AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

TOPIC II

UNIT IV

AFRICA UNDER EUROPEAN RULE

A TEACHING GUIDE

PROJECT AFRICA

Carnegie-Mellon University

1969

68

UNIT IV

As in the preceding unit, the emphasis of this unit is on the impact on Africans of a major event or force in their past--in this instance, European colonialism. It is not a study of the chronology of European penetration or partition of this continent. Nor is it an analysis of the colonial policies practiced by the various imperial powers.

This study, instead, focuses primarily on the impact of this European penetration, partition and imperial control on the African peoples themselves. It is an effort to "get inside" Africans to see how these European-directed forces and events affected them, how they impinged on, shaped or influenced the lives, thoughts and feelings of the peoples of Africa south of the Sahara. It is directed at answering the question of why Africans of today are the way they are. It is thus concerned essentially with Africa and Africans.

While rather romantic in itself the classical period of African exploration and discovery is primarily a part of European history. It is important here only because it led directly to the European partition of the African continent; thus, it is treated only briefly and primarily as a link between the periods of the slave trade and colonialism. Its import lies not in the names or dates of the great explorers but rather in the impact of their discoveries on the subsequent development of Africa--and that impact came largely in the form of European partition and occupation. It is how these latter events affected the peoples of Africa that is the main concern of this unit.

It would be impossible in the time available to study in great depth all aspects of this impact. Instead, only a few major facets have been selected for study here. Superficial analysis of the data provided will develop an understanding of some of the economic results of imperialism, of some results of Christian missionary activity and of certain aspects of foreign political domination. But, serious, sophisticated analysis will unearth evidence of racial prejudices and discrimination, of material progress, of the destruction of the traditional ways of life, of increasingly intense nationalism, of growing awareness of the "essence of Africa", and of an ability on the part of Africans to mold and adapt the forms of things Western to their own unique way of life. The learnings possible are unlimited. They depend almost wholly on the degree to which the students analyze--manipulate and tear apart--the data provided.

At the same time this unit is designed to build on the understandings of how ethnocentrism can affect one's perception of experience. The concluding activity provides an opportunity to analyze the concept of frame of reference and to explore its implications for students of history and future citizens. Thus, this unit is designed to develop broad skills and analytical concepts as well as understandings about Africa south of the Sahara.

The major objectives of this unit are:

To know significant ways in which European colonialism affected the peoples of Africa.

To be familiar with the high points of European exploration and partition of the African continent.

To understand what a frame of reference is, how it affects learning and its implications for the active inquirer.

To develop and refine the intellectual skills of inquiry--hypothesizing, verifying hypotheses, generalizing and testing conclusions against new data.

To feel what it is like to be an African today.

This unit consists of four activities:

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Material</u>
1	To become familiar with the opening of Africa to the outside world	maps 22-25 overhead projector tape recorder transparencies 26-28 booklet
2	To understand the partitioning of Africa	maps 17, 18, 26-28 study guide booklet
3	To identify ways in which European colonialism affected Africans	study guides booklet
4	To evaluate the impact of Europe on Africa	study guides booklet

AFRICA UNDER EUROPEAN RULE - ACTIVITY 1

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity introduces the study of the impact of European colonialism by providing an overview of the process by which Europe penetrated and took control of this continent. It is also intended to dispel some commonly held misconceptions about Europe's knowledge of Africa prior to the explorations of the nineteenth century.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know that European partition and occupation of Africa was a nineteenth century phenomenon.

To know that parts of Africa were well known to outsiders prior to nineteenth century European exploration.

To know the major areas of exploration and discovery.

To know the various areas of Africa claimed and occupied by European powers after 1885.

To make inferences from data.

To make meaningful generalizations from data.

- B) Materials: Resource maps 22-25
overhead projector
tape recorder
Transparencies 26,27,28
booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

Distribute resource maps 22, 23, 24 and 25 to each student. Have them spread these out on their desks so they can see all four at once.

1. Point out that although Europeans traded with Africans since 1500 and even established trade centers along the African coastline, they did not venture into the interior until rather recently. For some 400 years after the first European contact, in fact, Africa was known as the "Dark Continent" because so little was known about it.

2. Have the students examine the four maps before them. Ask: WHAT DID EUROPE KNOW ABOUT AFRICA BY ABOUT 1800?

- a) To assist the students in doing this have them note the dates for these maps.
 - b) Ask: IF THE SAME CITY OR FEATURE APPEARS ON ALL THE MAPS WHAT COULD YOU INFER ABOUT WHAT EUROPEANS KNOW ABOUT AFRICA? (The Nile, for example, is on all 4 maps.)
 - c) Ask: IF DIFFERENT FEATURES ARE ON EACH MAP OR THE SAME ARE SHOWN IN WIDELY DIFFERENT PLACES WHAT WOULD THIS SUGGEST?
 - d) Have the students look just at maps 22 and 23. Ask: BEFORE EUROPEANS HAD ANY EXTENSIVE CONTACT WITH AFRICA WHAT DID THEY KNOW ABOUT IT?
- (Have the students look for features that appear on both maps as well as ways in which the maps differ.)
- e) Focus on maps 24 and 25. Ask: WHAT HAD EUROPEANS LEARNED ABOUT AFRICA BY 1800?

(Again, have them look for features common to both maps as well as features that differ on these maps.)

Perhaps all the map makers copied from each other! (but not likely)

Europeans must believe that that feature exists.

Europeans may have discovered new information in between maps.

There is considerable confusion; they may suspect something is in a general area but not have proof or exact details.

They apparently knew about the existence of:

- a river in the northeast (Nile)
- Ethiopia
- Meroe
- Arabian Sea (Red Sea)
- Mediterranean coastline
- a river in the western part

They were uncertain as to whether or not it could be sailed around.

By 150 A.D. they knew of great lakes in the interior of East Africa and of many more cities, peoples and provinces.

They knew about:

Timbuctu	Mogadischio
Kano	Melinde
Benin	Abyssinia
Biafra	The Nile

They knew the coastline and many river mouths.

(It should be noted that maps 24 and 25 do not have all the cities and features on the originals; many have been omitted to permit easier reading.)

- f) Have the students generalize about what Europeans knew about Africa

3. Point out that as Europeans found out more and came up with conflicting reports they became increasingly curious about what the interior of Africa was really like. So, in the late 1700's some adventurous explorers began to go into this region to see exactly what was there.

Introduce the transparency-tape by suggesting they look at where these explorers went and what they discovered.

(Present the taped lecture using transparencies 26-28 as directed thereon.)

4. At the conclusion of the tape have the students generalize about Europe's exploration of Africa. Ask: WHAT CONCLUSIONS CAN WE DRAW ABOUT THE EXPLORATION OF AFRICA DURING THE PERIOD 1780-1880--
- RELATIVE TO NATIONS INVOLVED?
 - RELATIVE TO MOTIVES?
 - RELATIVE TO REGIONS?
 - RELATIVE TO THE TIMES IT OCCURRED?
 - RESULTS?

They knew a number of other cities and lakes in the interior.

But--they were still confused about the Niger (#24 it flows westward, in #25 it flows eastward), about the source of the Nile and about mountain ranges.

- a) Europeans were not totally ignorant about it.
- b) They knew the coastline and coastal cities quite well.
- c) They had at least heard of major rivers and lakes as well as some cities and empires in the interior but they didn't seem to be sure about them.

...etc....

Britain, France, Portugal and Germany seem to be the leaders in exploring.

...etc....

Require evidence to support conclusions offered.

List the accepted conclusions on the board and have them recorded in the student notebooks.

5. For homework assign pp. 67-75 - THE PARTITIONING OF AFRICA - in the student booklet. As they study the students should list what Europe's attitude toward Africans was during this period. All resource maps should be brought to the next class.

The main motives were to:
spread Christianity
end the slave trade
increase commerce
open up new communications links
gather more data about the region
(scientific exploration)

British and French seem to explore West Africa, Germans and British in East Africa, Portuguese and British in southern Africa and everyone in central Africa. It was apparently wide open to all interested explorers.

The major result was the opening of the interior by discovering routes into and through it and by alerting the outside world to what was there.

THE EXPLORATION OF AFRICA - Tape Script

Playing
time:
22 min.

Zambia, Malawi, Burundi and Chad
Where are the places I knew as a lad?
The names keep changing but the countries stay the same.
It's getting so--
The place is familiar but I can't face the name!

How many of you who have seen the map of Africa change so rapidly today have felt this same way! But it has not always been like this. Jonathan Swift, the man who wrote Gulliver's Travels, never had this problem. His complaint was just the opposite. Over 200 years ago, he wrote:

So geographers, in Africa maps,
With savage pictures fill their gaps,
And o'er unhabitable downs
Place elephants for want of towns.

Few people, indeed, knew much about what existed inside the vast African continent in Swift's day. As a matter of fact, we have had a fairly reasonable, complete and accurate picture of the interior of Africa south of the Sahara for only two generations now. And there are still some places in this region about which even today we know very little or, indeed, nothing at all.

Of course, the general outline of Africa was familiar to many European and Arab traders, sailors, map-makers and learned people as long ago as 1500 A.D. In fact, what they knew about its shape and coastline was much more accurate than what they knew--or thought they knew--about North and South America at the same time. But even then and for the next three hundred years, knowledge of the interior of Africa remained rather vague--filled largely with representations of myth, superstition and fantasy.

Yet, the outside world was really not wholly ignorant of the African interior by 1800. European maps of this continent were cluttered with the names of rivers, capes, lakes, peoples, cities, coastal settlements and mountain ranges. It was long known, as we have seen, that there were at least two great rivers--one, the Nile, flowing northward from some remote place of origin deep in the interior of the continent. The other river lay in the western part of the continent but there were various opinions about both its source and its termination. Many lakes were believed to exist in the interior as were a number of other immense rivers. Some of the latter were thought to disappear mysteriously and periodically into the ground rather than empty into the nearby ocean.

Africa was also known as a land of numerous mountain chains and there were reports of towering, snow-capped peaks that seemed to reach to the moon. Deep in its interior were untapped reserves of gold, ivory, ebony and other valuable products. Exotic and ferocious beasts of all shapes and sizes inhabited its jungles and forests. Strangely shaped peoples--some giants who used palm trees for spears and others almost dwarflike--lived beyond the coasts. There were cities and villages scattered the length and breadth of the land. At least this is what people thought, anyway. Without a doubt there was something there--and there was somebody there. But just precisely what and who was not at all clear, even by 1800. Africa was still quite a mystery.

One of the first areas of Africa south of the Sahara to be systematically explored by Europeans was West Africa. Although trading forts had existed for several hundred years along its coast, there was very little that was known about what lay inland. Of course, Europeans knew from the Arabs that great cities existed or had once existed there. Many believed that one of these, Timbuktu, was a splendid city of gold and riches, situated near a great river which the Arabs had compared in size and importance to the Nile. As transparency 26 suggests, one of the most compelling objectives of systematic European exploration of this region was to find this river so that trade could be opened with the fabled cities and empires of the interior. PROJECT BASE OUTLINE OF #26

By the 1700's only the coastline and parts of one or two rivers--the Senegal and the Gambia in the west--had been charted accurately. Yet many other rivers--shown here as broken lines--existed or were believed to exist. Eventhough Europeans were familiar with the coastline of the Bight of Benin they did not suspect that the numerous rivers emptying into it were in reality all branches of the Niger or that the entire region itself was, in fact, the delta of this river. There were so many winding inlets, the mangrove swamps were so thick and the land so flat that it was impossible for anyone to find one channel to follow all the way inland.

Map-makers had for years, as we have just seen, drawn a river in this area. Some had thought it a westward extension of the Nile. More than one geographer had drawn it flowing westward into the Atlantic. Other map-makers depicted it as emptying into a giant inland sea or marsh area from which its waters gradually evaporated. But no one knew precisely just which way it really did flow nor where it entered the sea--if it really did--nor even if the Nile and the Niger were one and the same.

In 1788 the African Association was created in England to provide money for expeditions to find out more about the Niger. Between 1788 and 1793 it sent three expeditions inland to locate the Niger--but all of these failed. In 1795, however, a young Scottish doctor, OVERLAY 1 Mungo Park led a fourth expedition to the banks of the Niger at Segu which he reached after six months of travel. Unable to proceed further because of a local war he returned to his base on the Gambia. His travels are shown in the yellow line on this transparency. Although he found neither the source nor outlet of the Niger, he did report that it was indeed a great river and that it did flow to the east. This in itself was a major discovery and led many to conclude that this river must therefore empty into some great swamp or inland lake in central Africa.

In 1805 Park undertook a second expedition OVERLAY 2 under the sponsorship of the British Colonial Office, which directed him to follow the river as far as he could and to explore the possibilities of trade with the people through whose lands it passed. He left the Gambia with a large party that included 39 other Europeans; but, by the time the group reached the Niger, all but 10 had died. Once at the river, the survivors built a large canoe and set out to follow its waters to their destination. They were never heard from again. Some time later, however, it was established

that the expedition had gone over 200 miles to Bussa where the canoe was dashed to pieces in the great rapids and all its occupants drowned.

About twenty years later the quest for the outlet of the Niger took a new tack. [OVERLAY 3] Another expedition moved southward across the Sahara from Tripoli and then, led by Hugh Clapperton, worked its way westward to Kano and finally to Sokoto, the capital of the Fulani empire. However, the ruling Sultan refused to allow it to go further, so Clapperton and his expedition returned the way they had come. He arrived in England in the middle of 1825. Although he could shed no light on the precise destination of the Niger, it was concluded from his reports that the great river did not flow on into Central Africa but rather, must turn southward and empty someplace into the gulf of Guinea. In addition, Clapperton's reports provided the first detailed description of the cities and peoples living in the western Sudan.

So intriguing were his reports that Clapperton was immediately sent out on a second expedition. [OVERLAY 4] This time he approached the river from the south. Travelling overland from Badagry he and a servant, Richard Lander, crossed the river and eventually reached Sokoto. But, although he had crossed the river near Bussa, he failed to trace any of its course further. He also failed to persuade the Sultan of Sokoto to agree to put an end to the slave trade in his empire--which was one of the reasons the British government sent him on this expedition in the first place.

Clapperton died at Sokoto. His servant, Lander, returned to England. [OVERLAY 5] Eventually he was able to persuade the Colonial Office--which had sponsored both of Clapperton's expeditions--to send him and his brother back to Bussa where, in 1830, they secured canoes and followed the course of the Niger to the sea. The trip proved uneventful until they got caught in the cut-throat competition between European and African traders who inhabited the delta towns. But eventually they returned to England with the news that the Niger did, indeed, empty into the Gulf of Guinea. At long last the outside world knew the story of the Niger.

The expeditions of Park, Clapperton and the Landers solved the problem of the Niger and suggested the main features of the interior. The details were filled in over the next several decades by men such as the Frenchman, René Caillié [OVERLAY 6] who in 1827 disguised himself as an Arab and became the first European to see Timbuktu and live to tell about it, and the German Heinrich Barth who spent 5 years in exploring over 10,000 miles in the western Sudan, around Lake Chad, the Benue River, Kano, Sokoto and as far west as Timbuktu. The reports of these men and others like them went far to fill in the map of West Africa. [REMOVE TRANSPARENCY 26]

As knowledge about the interior of West Africa became more complete, Europe's attention turned to East and central Africa. Most of the outsiders who had first penetrated these regions were Arabs in search of gold, ivory and slaves. Although the Portuguese once controlled many

coastal areas, by the end of the 1600's they had been forced out by various Arab sultans. For the next 150 years Arab-controlled trading cities dominated the coast. They were virtually independent states and they spent most of their time feuding with each other for control of the trade of the interior. But by the mid-1800's, power had been concentrated in the hands of the Sultan of Zanzibar who encouraged Arab traders to penetrate deeper and deeper into the interior. However, little effort was made by these people to share their knowledge of what they found with any other outsiders.

European interest in eastern Africa centered on finding the source of the mighty Nile River. It had been known for centuries that as you went south up this river it eventually branched into two tributaries--named the Blue Nile and the White Nile. Map-makers since the days of Ptolemy had believed both of these originated in lakes--the Blue Nile in a lake to the east and the White Nile in a great lake further south near the Mountains of the Moon. But for centuries no one was certain of this.

Then, in 1770, an Englishman--James Bruce--discovered the source of the Blue Nile near Lake Tana in present-day Ethiopia. It was not a discovery in the pure sense of the word--a few other Europeans had seen it and at least one description of it was available in Europe. But Bruce's report of his adventures in Ethiopia and his description of the source of this river struck the imagination of Europe--especially of the English--and stimulated widespread interest in finding the source of the other tributary--the White Nile. Transparency 27 records the highpoints of this search.

PROJECT BASE OUTLINE OF #27 In 1847 John Rebmann, a missionary in the employ of the British Church Missionary Society became the first European known to have penetrated the interior of East Africa. **OVERLAY 1** Together with another missionary, Ludwig Krapf, he made an intensive study of the languages of the region around Mombassa and explored inland in the hopes of establishing a chain of mission stations to serve as bases for the spread of Christianity throughout the region. Their travels soon resulted in the discovery of the snow-capped peaks of Mt. Kenya and Kilimanjaro. And they also heard stories of many great lakes that lay even further inland --including one said to be over 800 miles long and 300 miles wide.

The reports of these two men so interested the British Royal Geographical Society that it sent several expeditions to secure more accurate information. The first of these was headed by Richard Burton, an adventurous officer in the British Indian army. **OVERLAY 2** Burton and his party were led by Arab guides from Zanzibar to Lake Tanganyika, which he felt must be the source of the Nile. On his way back to the coast he permitted another army officer in the expedition, John Speke, to journey northward. **OVERLAY 3** Speke soon stumbled across Lake Victoria and came to believe that it was the source of the Nile. Burton, however, didn't trust Speke's conclusion and continued to believe that Lake Tanganyika was the source of this river.

The Royal Geographical Society immediately commissioned Speke to explore Lake Victoria to see if his suspicions were true. [OVERLAY 4] For three years he and a friend tramped around the lake enjoying the hospitality of several local kings. Speke even became the first European ever to be admitted to the court of the great kabaka, King of Buganda. On the north shore of the lake he found an outlet and followed its course far enough to become convinced that the White Nile, indeed, started in this lake.

On their way north, along the Nile, Speke and Grant met Sir Samuel Baker and his wife who had set out from the mouth of the Nile to trace its route southward and perhaps to meet them coming back. [OVERLAY 5] The Bakers continued on and followed the Nile into Lake Albert. From there they discovered the roaring Murchison Falls where the waters from Lake Victoria fell into the Victoria Nile that led into Lake Albert from which they emerged and flowed northward as the White Nile. So excited was Baker's party over their discovery that their gun-shooting and cheering celebration so scared the animals in the river that they were pursued by crocodiles and very nearly rammed and upset by a hippo. [REMOVE #27]

While Burton, Speke, Grant and the Bakers were searching for the source of the Nile in the highlands around Lake Victoria, others were probing the uncharted vastness of central and southern Africa. By far, the most famous of these men--indeed, the most famous of all African explorers--was David Livingston. Livingston was a medical missionary who truly loved Africa. He spent over 30 years of his life there. Transparency 28 shows the efforts he and others made to explore this part of Africa. [PROJECT BASE OUTLINE OF #28]

Livingston, however, was by no means the first European in this region. A large Dutch colony had existed around Capetown since the early 1600's. In 1795 it was taken by the British. In time, strong differences of opinion regarding treatment of the Africans and the use of land led to a division between the Dutch farmers called Boers and the newly arrived British immigrants, who in general were violently opposed to slavery. When the British government in 1828 passed a law ending slavery and started giving land on the frontiers of the colony to Africans, the Boers decided to leave. [OVERLAY 1] Starting in 1837 large numbers of Dutch farmers loaded their belongings into ox-drawn covered wagons and set out on a great trek over 300 miles into the interior of the region. As a result new Boer republics were created on land once owned by Africans.

It was into this region that Livingston was transplanted in 1841. His first position was at a mission station in Bechuanaland, in the Kalahari Desert. For years he travelled around the desert and northward establishing excellent relations with the local Africans. In 1851 he found the great Zambezi River. Soon he decided to try to find a way to link his mission station to the coastal settlements. [OVERLAY 2] Between 1853 and 1856 he made the first of three great journeys through the southern part of the continent, travelling all the way from the middle Zambezi westward to Luanda on the Atlantic coast and then back again, along the Zambezi all the way to its mouth at Quelimane on the Indian

Ocean. On the way he saw--and named--the famous Victoria Falls. Publication in England of a narrative of his journey made him immensely popular there; a new missionary society was established to aid the Africans in this region and the British government helped him organize a second expedition to explore the Zambezi as a possible link with the interior.

OVERLAY 3 In 1858 Livingston travelled up the Zambezi as far as he could by steam launch and then turned his attention northward where he spent two years exploring the highlands around Lake Nyasa. There he found so many lakes that he began to speculate about this region--instead of Lake Victoria--being the source of the Nile. During this expedition, too, he came into first-hand contact with the results of the slave trade and determined to do what he could to uproot it. Letters to his friends in England aroused great sympathy for the Africans, and mission stations were established in the region but failed to last very long. But his curiosity about the great waterway, however, eventually led to a third expedition.

Three years later he returned to the region to search for the source of the Nile. Although Speke, Grant and the Bakers had by then reported their findings that the Nile originated in Lakes Victoria and Albert, Livingston felt that perhaps these lakes had a source farther south. The ancient Ptolemy, remember, had pictured the Nile as originating in great lakes which were in turn fed by streams from the south. Livingston was intrigued by stories that the real source of the Nile lay not in Lake Victoria but in streams that fed this lake and that originated in bottomless fountains bubbling forth at the base of high mountains somewhere in central Africa. **OVERLAY 4** In 1866 he embarked on another expedition, and was never heard from again--that is, until a young, adventurous newspaperman Henry Stanley finally found him--toothless, emaciated and tattered--living at Ujiji on the edge of Lake Tanganyika.

OVERLAY 5 During these five years Livingston had explored far and wide, hunting for the fabled fountains and trying to find a northward flowing river. He found what he thought was the latter--he named it the Lualaba--and was exploring it further when he died in 1873 after 7 years in the region.

Henry Stanley had become famous by his newspaper accounts of his meeting with Dr. Livingston in 1871. He had returned from this experience entranced with the possibilities of the existence of a network of waterways that would permit travel and communication from one end of Africa to the other. Livingston's death gave him the opportunity to explore these possibilities. In 1874, outfitted by funds obtained from two newspapers, the British Daily Telegraph and the American New York Herald, Stanley launched an expedition whose purpose it was to check the various theories about the relation of Lakes Victoria and Tanganyika to the Nile and to sail down the Nile to its mouth.

OVERLAY 6 It took him 57 days and 1000 miles to reach Lake Victoria and travel completely around it. In so doing he found only one outlet--Ripon Falls--and thus confirmed Speke's theory about the origin of the Nile. A year later he circumnavigated Lake Tanganyika and found no

connection between it and the Nile. Believing that the northward-flowing Lualaba River--the one that Livingston had been exploring when he died--eventually joined the Nile, Stanley then worked his way to its banks at Nyangwe and launched a boat on its waters. But to his surprise the Lualaba was really the Congo and--after many narrow escapes from cannibals, rapids, wild animals, waterfalls and jungle disease--he arrived not at the Mediterranean but at the Atlantic. He had completely traversed central Africa!

Excited about the commercial possibilities of the land through which he had sailed he did what he could to persuade England to secure trading privileges there. But the British were not interested. However, King Leopold of Belgium was, and it was not long before Stanley, as Leopold's agent, was travelling throughout the Congo persuading local chiefs to declare their allegiance to the Belgian king.

In the same year that Stanley completed his crossing of the continent, a Portuguese army major, Serpa Pinto, headed an expedition sponsored by the Lisbon Geographic Society to explore the more southern reaches of the continent. [OVERLAY 7] Marching south from Luanda he eventually crossed the Kalahari and the Drakensburg mountains and finally reached the Indian Ocean at Durban.

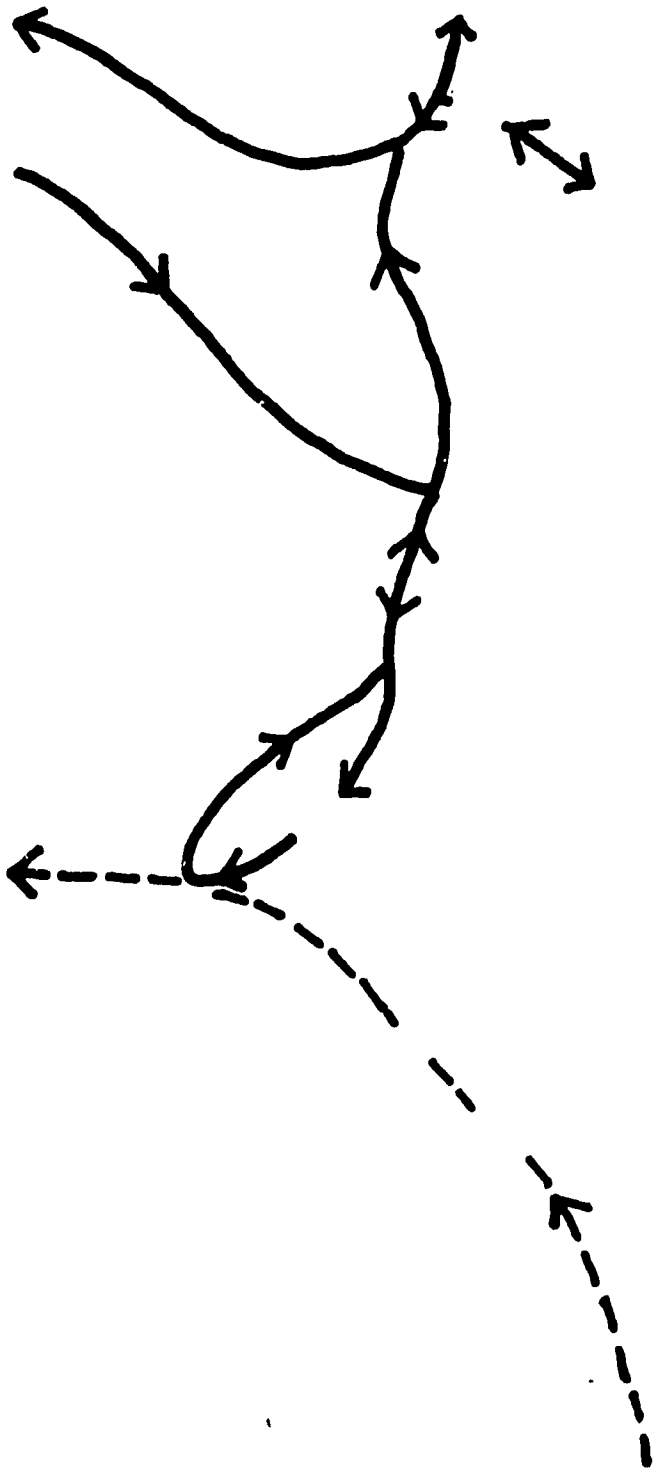
It was Stanley's expedition down the Congo, however, that climaxed nearly a century of efforts to discover just what lay in the interior of the "Dark Continent". [REMOVE #28] But it was not the end of exploration by any means. In the years that followed hundreds of Europeans entered this vast land mass to chart its still unknown spaces, to establish communications facilities, to trade with its inhabitants. But Stanley's journey marked the end of the period of initial, formal exploration. From that time on the interest of the outside world was not in finding out what was there--it was in getting it. Within eight years after Stanley had arrived at the mouth of the Congo in 1877, the African continent had been carved up by a host of European nations, and a new era in Africa's history had begun.

The transparencies used with the tape are included in World History: Unit I - Sub-Saharan Africa. Morristown, N.J.: Keuffel & Esser Co., 1966.

Transparency 26 is "The Quest for the Niger," No. 23 in the series.

Transparency 27 is "Search for the Sources of the Nile," No. 24 in the series.

Transparency 28 is "Exploration of Southern and Central Africa," No. 25 in the series.



Caillie 1827-29 -->
Barth 1850-56 -->

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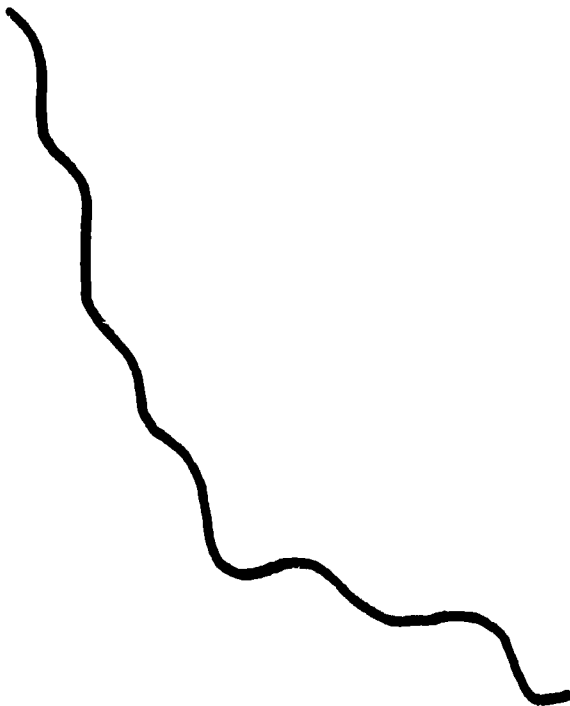
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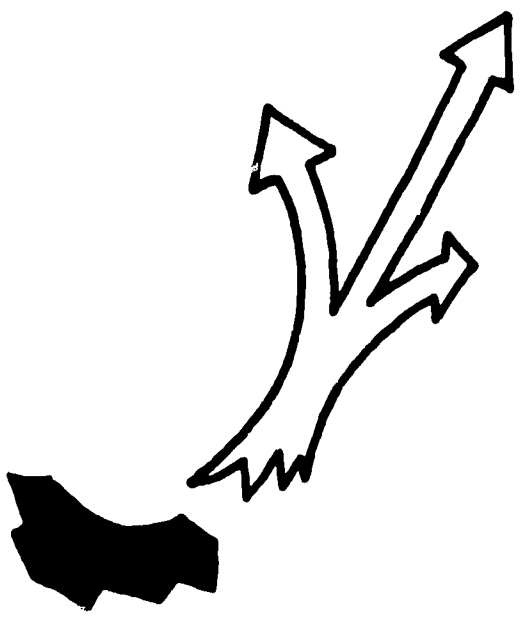


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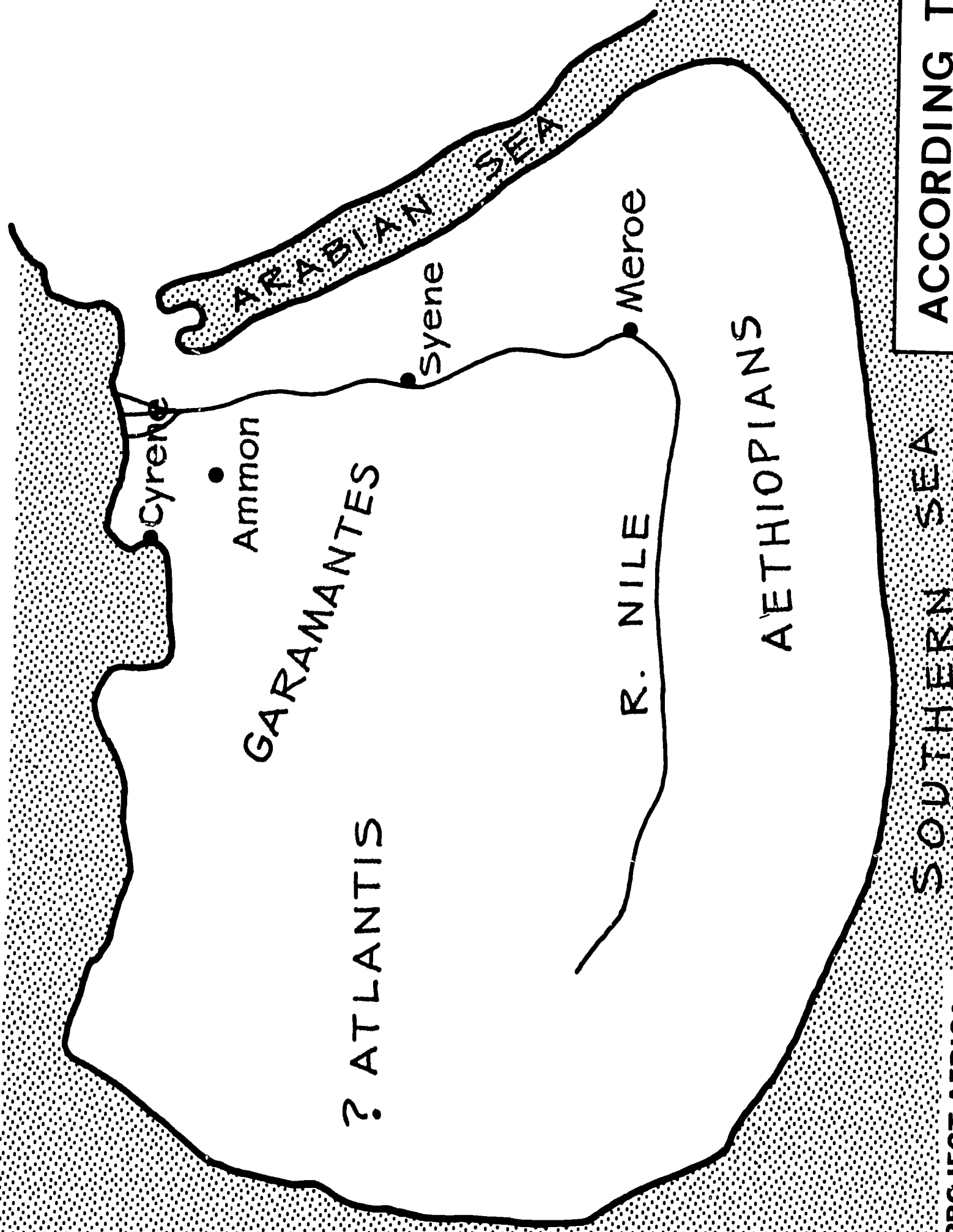
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■ CAPE COLONY
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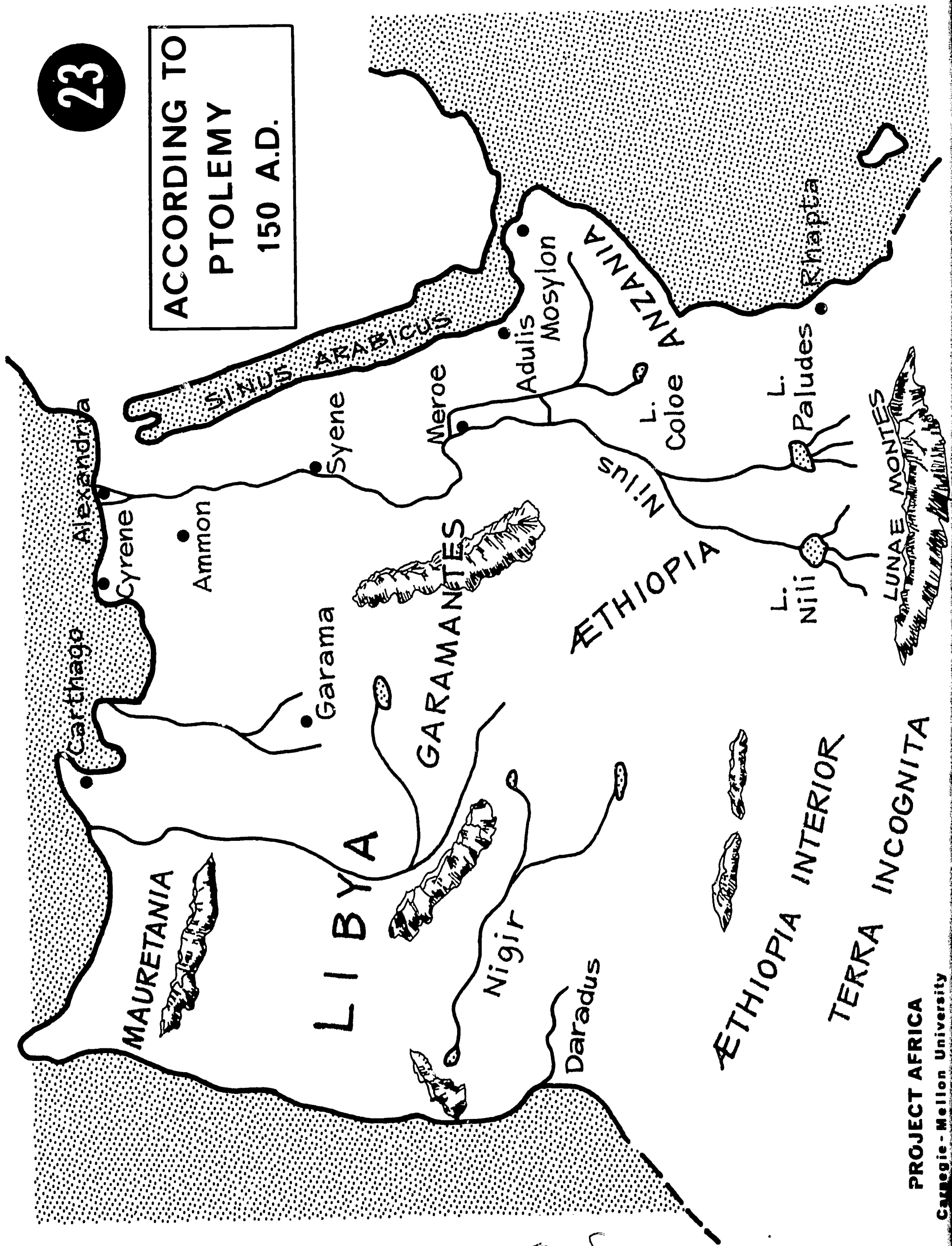
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ACCORDING TO
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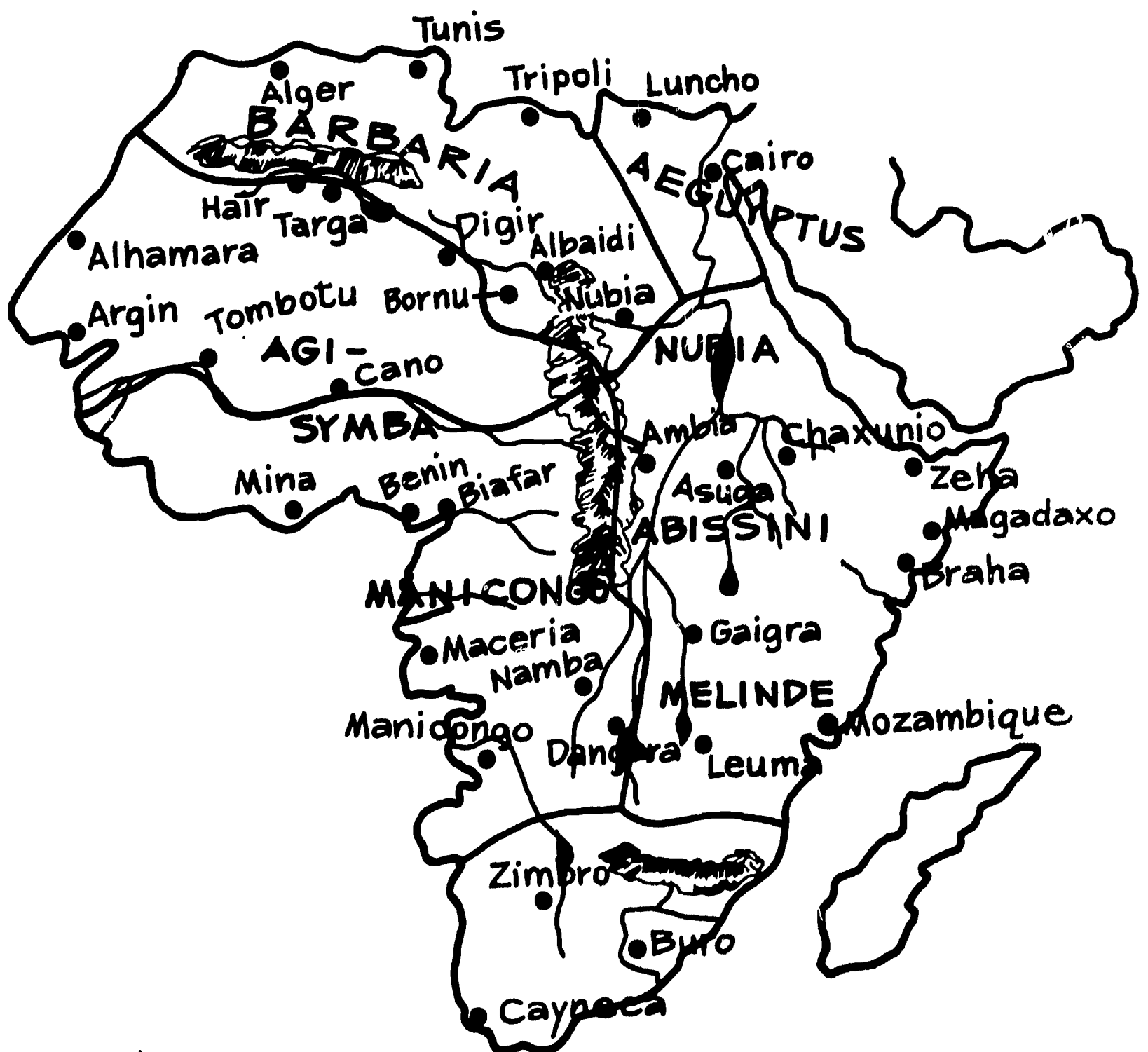
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1968

ACCORDING TO
PTOLEMY
150 A.D.



ACCORDING TO
ORTELIUS
1590 A.D.

24



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1968

829

ACCORDING TO
D'ANVILLE
1750 A.D.

25



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82h

AFRICA UNDER EUROPEAN RULE - ACTIVITY 2

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: The primary purpose of this activity is to provide additional background for the analysis of the impact of European colonial rule on Africans that follows. Although it is not intended here that the students know the details of Europe's penetration and occupation of Africa, it is intended that they be at least familiar with the broad general outline of this historical event because it shapes to some degree the way Europe's presence affected Africans.

Foreign control of Africa, it should be noted, was nothing new to most Africans. Tribes and villages had been conquered by other tribes and villages frequently during the preceding centuries. Muslim invaders had occupied the western Sudan for an extended period of time after 700 A.D. and the Arabs had controlled large segments of East Africa after 1600. But the European "conquest" between 1875 and 1914 was somewhat different. In most instances it was not spearheaded by armed force. It was, at least in its initial stages, a peaceful, gradual encroachment on traditional Africa. Thus, its impact on Africa took much longer to be felt and was extremely subtle. A familiarity with how it occurred and the general European attitude toward Africans in general is quite essential to an understanding of how and why it affected Africans as it did.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know the general sequence of events by which Africa was taken over by Europe.

To know some of the methods Europe used to gain control of Africa.

To know that African history reveals a trend toward decreasing the number and increasing the size of political units in Africa.

To know the general policies and attitudes of the European colonial power.

To make inferences from data.

To make meaningful generalizations from data.

- B) Materials: Resource maps 27, 28, 26, 17, 18
Student booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA
Study Guide IV,3.

C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

1. Review the homework assignment by asking the students to describe the most important result of Europe's 19th century explorations of Africa's interior.

The major result was that Europe took Africa--it claimed, partitioned and eventually occupied it without even asking the Africans! This was done for a variety of reasons:

- a) European nations wanted to be great and that meant owning colonies; Africa was the only place as yet "uncolonised."
- b) Some nations took colonies just so others couldn't get them.
- c) Some nations took colonies so they could have the rich mineral resources they thought were or might be there.
- d) Some took them to protect their citizens there or to help civilize the backward "natives."
- e) Generally nations took colonies there for several of these and other reasons.

2. Distribute resource maps 27 and 28 to each student.

- a) Have them compare maps 27 and 28 to tell: WHICH EUROPEAN NATIONS CLAIMED THE MOST TERRITORY? WHERE WERE THE COLONIAL EMPIRES OF THESE NATIONS CENTERED?

- b) ask: HOW DID THESE NATIONS ACQUIRE CONTROL OF THESE AREAS?

Britain and France

Britain - West, East, South

France - West

Belgium - Central

Germany - Atlantic coast, east coast

Portugal - Southwest and Southeast
coasts

...etc....

By deceit, trickery

treaties

threats

agreement among themselves without
African consent

3. Then distribute map 26 to each student. Direct the students to spread these out so they can see all three simultaneously.

- a) Ask: WHAT WAS AFRICA LIKE JUST 30 YEARS AGO - WHEN YOUR PARENTS WERE IN SCHOOL?
 - b) Direct the students to look at map #27. Ask: WHAT WAS IT LIKE ABOUT 50 YEARS AGO - WHEN YOUR GRANDPARENTS WERE PERHAPS IN SCHOOL?
 - c) Direct the students to study map #26. Ask: WHAT WAS AFRICA LIKE IN 1825?
 - d) Have the students compare map 26 with maps 27 and 28 and generalize about events in Africa during the period 1825-1940. Ask: WHAT HAPPENED IN AFRICA BETWEEN 1825 and 1940?
 - e) Then have the students also take out and look at maps 17 and 18. Ask: WHAT HAPPENED IN AFRICA OVER THE PAST 1000 YEARS UP TO 1940?
4. Have the students refer to the quotes and descriptions of Europe's policy toward Africa on pp. 73-74 of the booklet. Ask: WHAT WERE THE GENERAL POLICIES FOLLOWED BY EUROPE'S POWERS TOWARD THEIR AFRICAN COLONIES?

It was divided into numerous political units but most were controlled by European nations. Africa was controlled by a half-dozen foreign powers. Britain, France, Belgium and Portugal seemed to control most of it.

It was also divided into many political units. But these were controlled by more European nations than held land in 1940. Britain and France had less in 1914 than 1940. Germany had land in 1914 but not 1940.

Very little was occupied or claimed by foreign powers. European influence or control over the interior was nil. Africa was pretty much free.

Between 1825-1914 Africa was taken over and divided by European powers.

Between 1914 and 1940 ownership of some of these lands changed hands.

- a) There was a trend toward decreasing the number of political units--from hundreds of tribal societies and kingdoms around 1000 to a number of units under the control of six nations.
- b) Different kinds of political units grew up--with fixed boundaries, outside control, etc.
- c) Boundaries in Africa were very fluid--always changing until Europe took over.

England - paternalism, indirect rule, economic exploitation, settlement in some areas

France - assimilation, trying to spread French culture, strong French rule

5. Ask: FROM THESE QUOTES AND THE OTHER INFORMATION IN THE ESSAY, WHAT CAN YOU TELL ABOUT EUROPE'S ATTITUDE TOWARD AFRICANS? (allow the students to refer to their booklets for examples and data)

(List these on the board. Have them copied in the student notebooks.)

6. Ask: GIVEN THESE ATTITUDES AND WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THESE POLICIES WHAT WOULD YOU EXPECT WAS THE IMPACT OF EUROPEAN COLONISLISM ON AFRICANS?

7. Point out that the next two days will be devoted to studying the ways in which this colonialism affected Africans.

Divide the class into groups on the basis of rows--Row 1 to be A, row 2-B, etc. Assign everyone to read pp. 77-80 in the student booklet and each individual group to read also a special assignment.

(special group assignments next page)

Belgium - use Africans as labor, exploit resources, minimum of attention to Africans

Portuguese - make Africans work to improve life, economic exploitation, harsh rule

All European nations seemed to feel Africans were inferior (see quotes by British p.73 and Portuguese p.74); all looked on Africans as source of cheap labor.

Evidence (the way treaties were made, the tone of the quotes, the deliberate vagueness of treaties etc.) suggests that Europeans believed Africans were:

backward
childish
ignorant
weak
unorganized
lazy

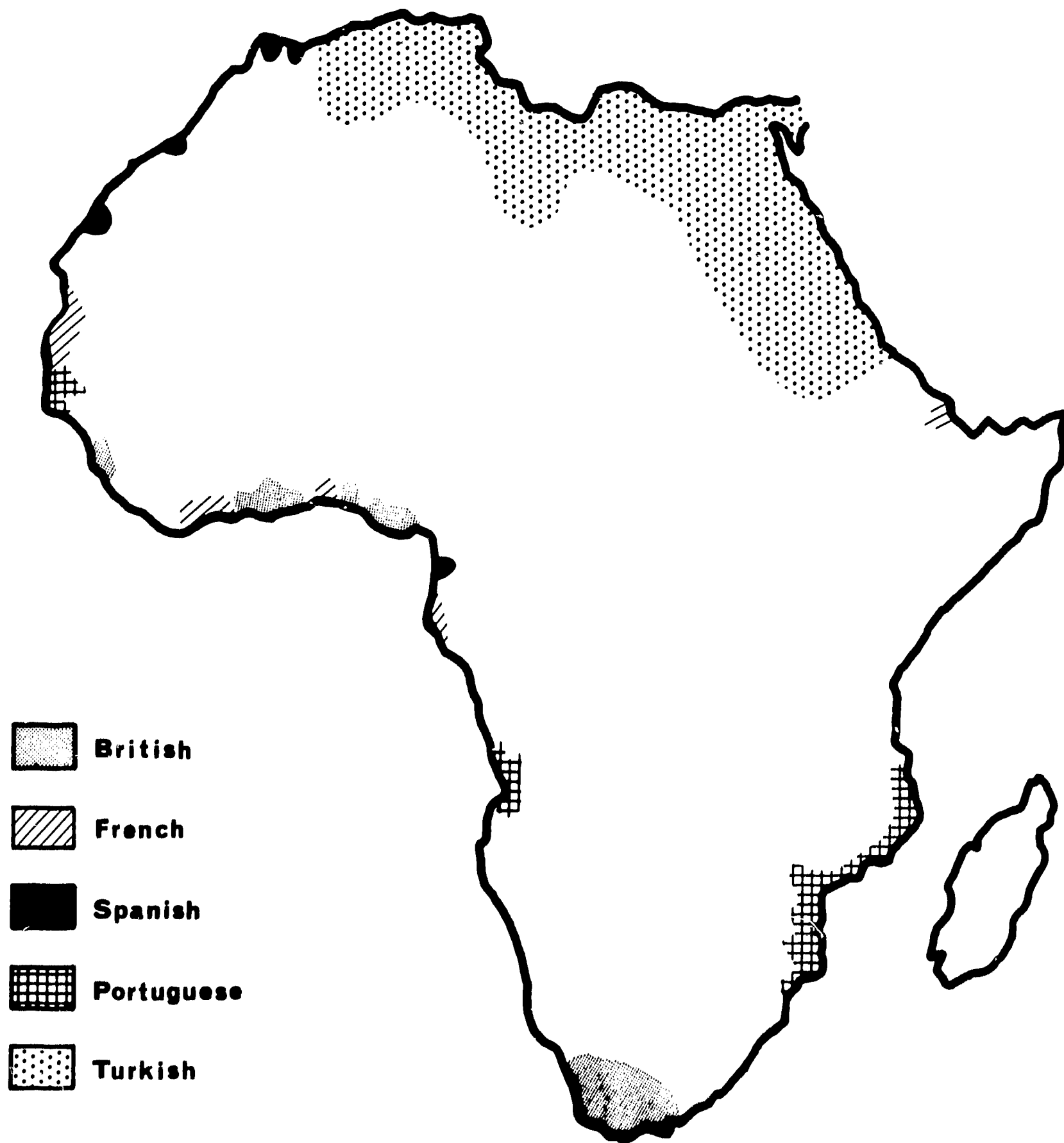
Students may hypothesize that it probably differed in each area but that in general the British exploited the Africans the least and were least harsh while the Portuguese and Belgians were most harsh and severe.

- A - pp. 80-87 Christianity
- B - pp. 87-94 Economic & Transportation
- C - pp. 94-103 Education - Social
- D - pp. 80-87
- E - pp. 87-94
- F - pp. 94-103

As these pages are studied, the students are to complete the study guide for IV,3 (distribute one to each student) and bring it to the next class.

FOREIGN CONTROL 1825

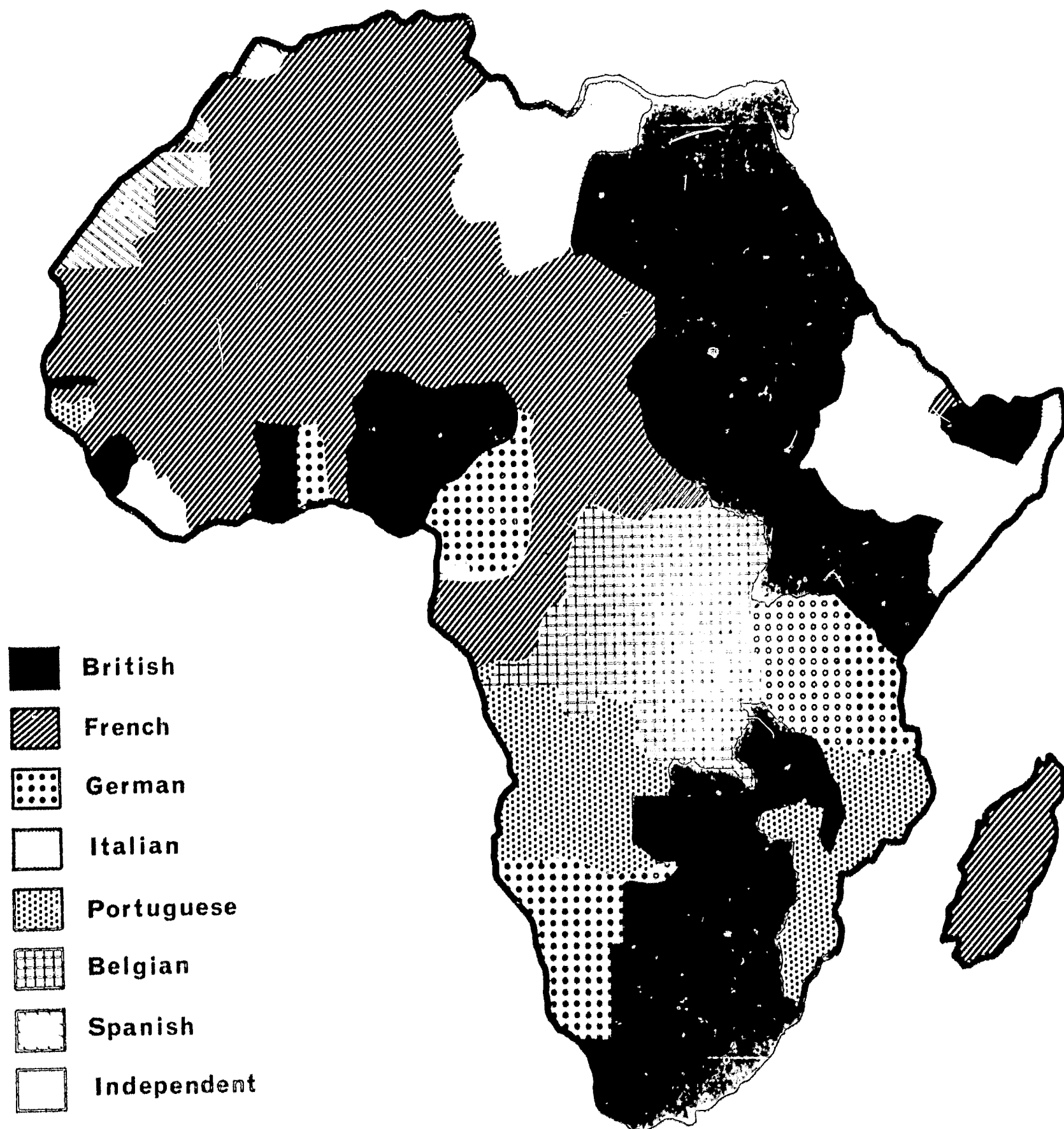
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EUROPEAN CONTROL AND INFLUENCE: 1914

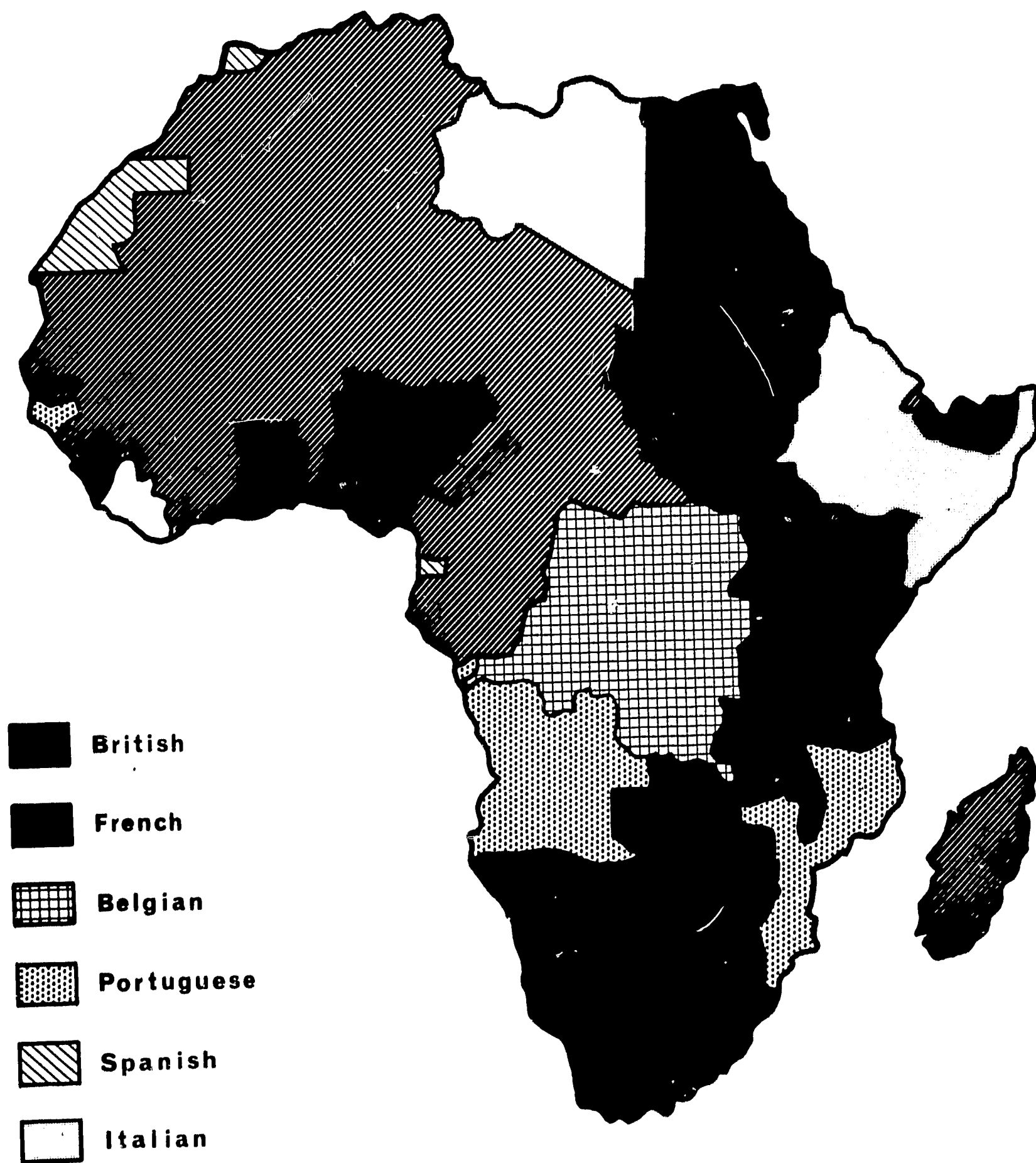
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EUROPEAN CONTROL AND INFLUENCE:1940

28



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THE IMPACT OF EUROPE ON AFRICA

STUDY GUIDE

1. List below the ways in which European control or influence over Africa between 1885 and 1950 affected Africans:
2. Some of the things Europeans did to and in Africa proved beneficial to Africans. Others were actually harmful to them. Examine the items you have listed above and also review the documents you have just studied, to determine which were beneficial and which were harmful. But a B in front of those you believe benefitted Africans and an H in front of those you believe were harmful. Be prepared to defend your reasons for your opinions.

AFRICA UNDER EUROPEAN RULE - ACTIVITY 3

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: The purpose of this activity is to identify some significant ways in which European domination of Africa south of the Sahara affected Africans. It is designed to have students collect, interpret, analyze and evaluate data about the nature of this impact. It also provides an opportunity for students to work together in small groups and thus to engage in the give and take of cooperative inquiry.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know some significant ways in which European colonialism affected Africans.

To be able to identify similarities and other relationships among data.

To be able to evaluate data.

To be willing and able to work together.

- B) Materials: Student booklet: HISTORY OF AFRICA
Study Guide IV,3 (The Impact of Europe on Africa)
Study Guide II,4
- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

-
- 1) Have the students refer to their study guide (IV,3) and report all the ways they found that European colonialism affected Africans. List these on the board. Direct the students to copy items they don't have onto their study guide. (Allow up to 8-10 min. for this.)
 - 2) Divide the class into groups so that all those sitting in the first seat in each row are in the same group, all those in the second seats in another group and so on (so each group has members who between them have read all the documents in the preceding assignment).

Direct each group to classify the items on the board according to B = benefit Africans
H = harmful to Africans
blank = undecided

One member of the group should note these choices and be prepared to report back to the class on the decisions made. (Allow up to 12 min. for this.)

- 3) Reconvene the class. Have the representative from each group report to the class its classifications. Where conflicting classifications are given to the same item require the students to give their reasons. (In doing this, it may be best to have one group representative classify 5 items and then ask if any group disagreed; if so, ask both for the reasons behind their choices. Then ask another group representative to report on another 5 and repeat the process as time allows.)
- 4) With 5-6 minutes remaining distribute a study guide for Activity 4 to each student. Direct them to read and answer questions 1 and 2 now. They should examine the items on the board classified as B (beneficial) and write a sentence that describes what all these have in common. The same should be done for all those classified as H (harmful). If time permits have several volunteers read their sentences.

Direct them to complete the study guide for homework and to bring it and their student booklet to the next class.

The same item may be listed as B and H, depending on the reasons the students give. Items on which this might occur may be:

B/H building railroads
B/H schools/education
...etc....

STUDY GUIDE

1. Write a sentence that describes what all of the items marked B on the board (that benefitted Africans) have in common:

2. Write a sentence that describes what all of the items marked H on the board (that were harmful to Africans) have in common:

3. Study pages 103-106 in your student booklet. List below, in the appropriate columns those ways in which the authors of these statements consider European Colonialism benefitted or harmed Africans:

B--Beneficial to Africans

H--Harmful to Africans

4. What do all the items you listed under Column B have in common?

5. What do all the items you listed under Column H have in common?
6. If the answer to question 4 differs from your statement in question 1, tell why:
7. If the answer to question 5 differs from your statement in question 2, tell why:
8. What do the authors (on pp. 103-106) who noted those effects you listed under Column B (question 3 above) have in common?
9. What do the authors (on pp. 103-106) who noted those effects you listed under Column H (question 3 above) have in common?
10. Be prepared to explain in class how your answers to question 8 and 3 (B) are related and how your answers to question 9 and 3 (H) are related.

906

AFRICA UNDER EUROPEAN RULE - ACTIVITY IV

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity concludes the exploration of the impact of European colonialism on Africans. It is designed to help the students generalize about the nature of this impact and, in so doing, come to understand how one's frame of reference, biases or previous experience influences judgements about historical events.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know some significant ways in which European colonialism benefitted or proved harmful to Africans.

To know that a person's frame of reference influences his perceptions of experience.

To make inferences from data.

To draw meaningful conclusions from data.

- B) Materials: Student booklet THE HISTORY OF AFRICA
~~Study Guide IV, 3 (The Impact of Europe on Africa)~~
Study Guide IV, 4
Study Guide + Maps V, 1

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Direct the students to compare their answers to question 3 on the study guide to the list prepared in the preceding class (and copied on their study guide for Activity 3). Ask them to explain any discrepancies.

- 2) Have them compare their answers to questions 1 and 4, 2 and 5.

- 3) Ask: WHICH AUTHORS IN THE READING (pp. 103-106) SUPPORT THE ITEMS YOU LISTED AS BENEFICIAL? WHAT DO THEY HAVE IN COMMON?

- a) Ask: WHAT EXPLAINS THE DIFFERENT POINTS OF VIEW OF THESE PEOPLE?

In general those listed as beneficial may be of a material, technological nature; those considered harmful might be related to human interrelations, social features or humanism.

In general, European authors support these beneficial effects. The African authors point up harmful effects.

They have different backgrounds or frames of reference. The Europeans look on material improvements as good. The Africans are more

b) WHY WERE OUR EVALUATIONS
SIMILAR?

c) Ask: WHAT DOES THIS MEAN
TO US?

4) Then ask: WHAT CONCLUSIONS
CAN WE MAKE ABOUT THE IMPACT
OF EUROPEAN COLONIALISM ON
AFRICA?

Have the students list these
in their notes.

5) With about 10 minutes remain-
ing, have the students examine
the statements by d'Andrade
and Kaunda on p. 106 of the
student booklet. Ask: WHAT
IS THE BASIC POINT OF DIF-
FERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO?

concerned with the impact on people.
Thus they often stress different
aspects of the same thing--as of
education, for example.

The students, like the European
authors, are part of a society
that values technological and
material "progress."

It is important to know the back-
ground or biases of a person in
order to evaluate what he says.

Some conclusions may be:

European colonialism had both
good and bad effects on Africans.

It introduced Africans to the
technological advances of the
outside world.

It brought medicine, better
food, etc.

It destroyed old religious
practices without replacing
them with adequate alternatives.



It caused a split between genera-
tions.

d'Andrade cites material contribu-
tions as beneficial; Kaunda does
not criticize these but instead
complains that Africans did not
benefit from these--roads were
built but Africans couldn't own
cars; trains ran but Africans had
to travel third class; schools
were opened but Africans were not
educated enough, etc. The African
complaint is that they did not
share in the material benefits,
and that their basic interpersonal
relationships were ignored or
destroyed.

- 6) Have the students conclude about the general impact of European colonialism on Africans. This statement should be written in their notebooks.
- 7) Distribute a study guide and 3 copies of the map "African Independence" to each student. Direct them to follow the directions on the study guide and bring the completed maps to the next class.

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE

Study Guide

1. This assignment will require you to use:
 - a) Resource map #2 Nations of Africa
 - b) the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA
 - c) 3 maps--African Independence
 - d) pencils of 3 different colors
2. Using the information on pp. 107-111 (African Independence) of the booklet, HISTORY OF AFRICA, prepare the following three maps:
 - a) African Independence to 1958
 1. Write TO 1958 under the title of the map.
 2. Label and mark  blue all nations in Africa south of the Sahara that were completely independent by December 31, 1954. Make a key (legend) to show this.
 3. Label and color solid blue all nations in Africa south of the Sahara that achieved complete independence between January 1, 1955 and December 31, 1957. Make a key to show this.
 - b) African Independence 1958-1961
 1. Write 1958-1961 under the title of the map.
 2. Label and color solid red all nations in Africa south of the Sahara that became completely independent between January 1, 1958 and December 31, 1960. Show this on a key (legend).
 - c) African Independence 1961-Present
 1. Write 1961-PRESENT under the title of the map.
 2. Label and mark  green all the nations in Africa south of the Sahara which achieved independence between January 1, 1961 and December 31, 1963. Make a key to show this.
 3. Label and color solid green all the nations in Africa south of the Sahara which became independent between January 1, 1964 and today. Make a key to show this.
3. Bring these completed maps and your other resource maps to the next class.

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE



942

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AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

TOPIC II

UNIT V

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE

A TEACHING GUIDE

PROJECT AFRICA

Carnegie-Mellon University

1969

94b

UNIT V

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE

Independence came to the nations south of the Sahara in a disarmingly quick fashion. Between 1957 and 1961 nineteen new nations were created where none before existed. In the years that followed, this number was nearly doubled. Today, most of the peoples in Africa south of the Sahara live in independent, self-governing nations whereas hardly more than a decade ago only a relatively few Africans enjoyed self-rule. This unit is a study of the how and why of this swift change in the political map of Africa.

Africa's independence was not as spontaneous as it appears at first glance. The achievement of independence was, in reality, the culmination of years of protest, organization and agitation on the part of a growing number of nationalists in almost every African colony. It was a direct outgrowth of the exploitation, discrimination and control which European colonization brought to this continent. It was also stimulated by events elsewhere in the world, of which the most important by far was World War II and its immediate aftermath.

The story of how and why African peoples finally achieved independence from foreign rule is not unique. Striking parallels can be found in the stories of the independence movements in India, Mexico and even the United States. Thus, the study of this movement can serve to conceptualize a model for the study of these movements, too, as well as to help students understand better why Africans are the way they are today.

It should be noted here that the relationship between Africa's independence movement and the impact of Europe in Africa (the subject of the preceding unit) is very close, indeed. The independence movement grew out of this impact and was simultaneous to it. It was not a separate event that followed. However, for purposes of analysis, independence is treated separately here. The teacher, in facilitating this study, should help the students make repeated connections between the content of this and the preceding unit so that the relationship will be clear.

The major objectives of this unit are to:

Know the major causes of and events that led to Africa's independence from European control.

Know the major characteristics of African nationalism and independence.

Know the relationship between this period of African history and preceding as well as contemporary African history.

Know and practice the skills of intellectual inquiry and historical investigation.

This unit consists of five activities:

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Material</u>
1	To develop a hypothesis for investigation about Africa's independence.	student maps resource maps booklet
2	To collect and analyse data about events that triggered African independence.	booklet data card study guide
3	To collect and analyse additional data about African nationalism.	study guides booklet
4	To collect and analyse additional data about African nationalism.	booklet data card study guide
5	To draw general conclusions about African nationalism and independence.	booklet newspaper

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE -- ACTIVITY 1

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity launches an inquiry into how and why African nations south of the Sahara secured their independence when they did. It is designed to develop hypotheses that will serve as guides and tools to a meaningful study of this formative period in modern African history. It is based directly on the study in the preceding unit--the impact of Europe on Africa.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know that sub-Saharan nations won independence very rapidly in the late 1950's and 1960's.

To know significant features about the way in which they achieved this independence.

To hypothesize from data.

To develop the logical consequences of the hypothesis.

- B) Materials: 3 student maps (African Independence)
resource map #28
booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Direct the students to take out the three maps made for home-work. Have the students check each briefly for accuracy. Settle any questions about dates by referring to the reading, pp. 107-111.
- 2) Ask: WHAT GENERALIZATIONS CAN WE MAKE ABOUT AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE? (Have the students look at the sequence of independence, which colonies became independent first, where they were, etc.; in doing this, the students should overlay their maps on resource map #28 (1940). They might also refer to the reading assignment, pp. 107-111.)

Write these on the board; have the students copy them in their notes.

Students should not include nations north of the Sahara on the map. The Sudan, however, may be included.

There were few independent nations south of the Sahara before 1955.

Most African nations became independent 1960-61.

The first group of nations to become independent after 1955 were in West Africa.

The French colonies were the first to be freed.

Independence took longer in East and south-central Africa.

- 3) Focus on those general statements relating to time sequence. Ask: WHY DID AFRICAN NATIONS SUDDENLY GET INDEPENDENCE IN 1958-61? WHY NOT SOONER--OR LATER?

- 4) Comment on hypotheses a-c; get the students to focus on WHY IN THE LATE 1950's--WHY NOT SOME OTHER TIME?

Point out that these grievances (a) always existed, that France (b) was more lenient--but WHY DID ALL THIS HAPPEN WHEN IT DID? WHAT TRIGGERED INDEPENDENCE?

- 5) Treat this answer as a hypothesis. Ask: IF THIS IS TRUE WHAT WILL YOU EXPECT TO FIND OR LOOK FOR IN THE EVENTS OF THIS PERIOD?

- 6) Direct the students for homework to read pp. 112-125 of African Independence in the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA.

As they do they are to see if their hypothesis is correct. WHAT DID HAPPEN TO BRING ABOUT INDEPENDENCE IN AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA SO FAST? (Students should start this in class if time permits.)

Students may hypothesize:

- a) Africans disliked racial discrimination, exploitation, mistreatment they received from Europeans.
- b) French were kinder so freed their colonies first; Portuguese followed a tough policy so they didn't let theirs be free yet.
- c) They all saw Ghana get free so they wanted to be free, too.
- d) Some changes in world made possible this freedom in late 1950's.

Perhaps some event in the world--such as World War II!

African independence was triggered by....

If the students have hypothesized war as a cause, then they will look for how it affected Africans--perhaps it will have given them guns and training, or will have "opened their eyes to the possibilities of freedom," etc. If so, the evidence they will want to find will be stories, essays, newspaper articles about these things.

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE -- ACTIVITY 2

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: Testing a hypothesis requires a search for and analysis of data. This activity involves these aspects of inquiry into the causes of Africa's rapid achievement of independence. It requires the analysis of data collected in the homework assignment as well as the collection and analysis of new data presented in class. (The teacher might find it valuable to study pp. 140-144 in the HISTORY OF AFRICA for his own information prior to conducting this activity.)

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know that World War II seems to have had a major impact on the movement for African independence.

To make inferences from data.

To determine relevant from irrelevant data.

To make meaningful generalizations from data.

- B) Materials: booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA
data card -- African Independence
study guide for Activity 3

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Have the students open their booklets to pp. 112-125. Have them recall the hypothesis they were testing by studying this data. Ask: WHAT SEEM TO HAVE BEEN THE THINGS THAT TRIGGERED INDEPENDENCE IN AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA?

World War II and its impact on Africa.

Education and travel abroad.

Rising awareness of and sensitivity to discriminatory practices of colonial powers.

- 2) Have the students explain HOW these helped trigger independence. Ask: HOW DID THE WAR AFFECT AFRICA?

HOW DID OVERSEAS TRAVEL STIMULATE THE INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENT?

WHAT KINDS OF DISCRIMINATION WERE PRACTICED?

WHAT OTHER GRIEVANCES DID AFRICANS HAVE (the students might refer to what they learned in Unit IV about the impact of Europe on Africa.)?

- 3) Point out that independence didn't just happen, however. Things had been going on a long time that were paving the way. The war merely gave the final push and provided the opportunity.

Distribute the data card on African Independence to each student.

- a) Have the students look at the period in each country before World War II (1939). Ask: WHAT HAPPENED IN THESE COUNTRIES THAT GIVES EVIDENCE OF A DESIRE FOR INDEPENDENCE? (Have the students explain how each event cited might reflect this desire.)

- b) Have the students generalize about the pre-War independence movement. Ask: WHAT CAN WE SAY ABOUT THE PRE-WAR INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENT IN GENERAL?

The students should analyse in detail the answers to these questions. For example, the war made Africans dissatisfied with bush life, gave them a chance to fight for freedom elsewhere--and win, meet whites in jobs like theirs, etc.; all these increased African desire for freedom and showed it was possible--it gave them a feeling they were as good as whites--or better because it was the whites' war, not theirs...etc...

In most of these countries, before World War II,

Newspapers agitated for it
National political groups were formed

Requests were made for a voice in local government

There were strikes

Africans travelled overseas

Africans never completely accepted colonial status.

Attempts were made to organize for independence.

Efforts were made to communicate and educate the people.

Began to organize strikers, mass protests

...etc...

- c) Direct the students to examine events in these countries after World War II. Ask: WHAT HAPPENED IN THESE COUNTRIES AFTER THE WAR THAT GIVES EVIDENCE OF A DESIRE FOR INDEPENDENCE?

- d) Have the students generalize about this movement. Ask: WHAT CAN WE SAY ABOUT THE INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENT AFTER 1940?

- 4) Have the students compare the pre- and post-war movements in general terms.

- 5) Direct the students, for homework, to study pp. 126-133, in the HISTORY OF AFRICA and to complete the study guide for Activity 3 (distribute one copy to each student).

In most of these nations,
new constitutions are made
more riots, strikes
leaders are jailed
elections are held
restrictive laws are passed
... etc...

- a) The Colonial powers make concessions to Africans--
new constitutions
elections
more involvement in government

- b) There are more strikes, riots, demands, tribal conflicts.

- c) Colonial powers suppress freedom more by
jailing leaders
passing restriction laws
breaking strikes

- d) the more concessions are made, the more demands and unrest there is and more repressive laws are passed; which leads to new demands, more concessions, more violence, more repression, etc.

Pre-war movement seems to be one of organizing and getting ready.

Post-war seems to be one of active demands, concession and getting some self-rule.

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE DATA CARD #1

Senegal

- 1880 - Majority of African city-dwellers granted limited French citizenship.
- 1900 - Speeches against colonial rule.
- 1903 - Public schools open to Africans.
- 1910 - African planters organize for better prices.
- 1912 - French recruit Africans into Army.
- 1914 - World War I Senegalese soldiers fight Germans (battle of the Marne)
 - First Senegalese elected to French parliament.
- 1930's - French political parties become active in Senegal
- 1937 - French labor unions organize African workers.

-
- 1939 - World II. Senegalese soldiers help defend France.
 - 1943 - Senegalese join "Free French" in fight against Nazis after fall of France.
 - 1946 - Forced labor abolished.
 - All-African political party formed (opposed to revival of colonialism)
 - 1947 - Literary magazine founded--asserts "negritude".
 - 1952 - Wage equality with French workers.
 - 1956 - French grant local self-government.
 - 1958 - New constitution. Senegal chooses "autonomy within French community".
 - 1960 - Full independence.

Congo

- 1908 - Belgian Parliament takes the Congo away from King Leopold.
 - Belgian industrial and mining companies required to house, clothe and feed workers and their families. Africans receive primary and vocational training.
-
- 1939 - World War II begins.
 - 1943 - American soldiers, whites & blacks, serve in Belgian Congo.
 - 1944 - African soldiers mutiny--protest officers' brutality.
 - European workers in mines go on strike for higher wages.
 - 1945 - Africans engage in illegal strike for better working conditions.
 - 1947 - Two Africans selected for Government Advisory Council.
 - New law allows Africans to join unions.
 - 1951 - Eight Africans appointed by Government to advise on tribal affairs.
 - 1952 - First Congolese admitted to European university.
 - Africans and Europeans to be judged for crimes in same courts.
 - 1955 - Belgian King Baudouin visits Congo.
 - Africans now allowed to buy liquor.
 - 1956 - 32 Congolese enrolled in new College in Congo.
 - Newspapers for Africans published in Leopoldville. Ask for independence in 30 years.
 - First Congolese university graduate.
 - 1957 - Newspapers suppressed by government.
 - Local elections open to Congolese in some parts of country.
 - 1958 - Three Congolese visit Ghana--see former colony now independent.
 - Nationalist political party formed by Patrice Lumumba.
 - 1959 - Government bans political meetings.
 - Rioting kills 49 Europeans and 49 Africans.
 - Government promises elections and eventual independence.
 - African political leaders jailed.
 - Africans given more jobs in government.
 - Kasavubu and Lumumba jailed. More killed in riots.
 - Tribal warfare between Balubu and Lulua
 - 1960 - Lumumba jailed by Belgians.
 - Independence. Lumumba Prime Minister

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE DATA CARD #2

Gold Coast to Ghana

- 1900 - Gold Coast chiefs request right to help legislate for colony.
 - 1909 - Newspaper for English-speaking Africans agitates for political and social equality.
 - 1914-1918 - Africans serve in British Army in Europe and elsewhere
 - 1919 - American President Wilson calls for a peace based on self-determination of peoples.
 - Africans refused voice at Peace Conference.
 - 1920 - West African National Congress founded. Participants ask that the Africans be allowed to participate in government.
 - 1930's - African students study in U.S. and England
 - 1934 - Colonial Governor issues ordinance against sedition.
 - 1938 - Africans refuse to sell cocoa to European firms until "fair price" is paid.
-
- 1939-1945 - Africans serve in British Army and Merchant Marine in World War II.
 - American Negro soldiers serve in West Africa.
 - 1946 - New Constitution grants Africans new rights, but keeps control with British Governor.
 - 1948 - Ex-servicemen's Union demonstration against high prices causes riots. 29 killed.
 - 1949 - Kwame Nkrumah addresses audience of 60,000. Demands "full self-government now" and announces formation of new political party.
 - 1950 - Strikes, boycotts, and "non-cooperation" directed against British. Nkrumah jailed.
 - 1954 - British grant Gold Coast internal self-government.
 - 1955 - Tribal chiefs organize opposition to Nkrumah's nationalist policies.
 - 1956 - Nkrumah's nationalist party wins large majority in elections. British agree to full independence.
 - 1957 - Independence; name changed to Ghana.

Nigeria

- 1891 - United African Church splits with Church of England to form all-African Church
 - 1900 - Newspapers in English for Africans in Lagos.
 - 1914-1918 - Africans serve in British Army in Europe and elsewhere.
 - 1918 - African veterans lead brief protest against high British taxes.
 - 1923 - New constitution allows four Africans to serve on advisory council.
 - 1924 - Political party formed with aim of "government of, by and for people".
 - 1929 - Aba market women protest against high taxation--fifty killed.
 - 1930's - African students study in U.S. and British schools.
 - 1934 - Nigerian Youth Movement formed--appeals to nationalist rather than tribal sentiments.
 - 1937 - Dr. Azikiwe founds newspaper chain--editorials call for "national self-determination."
-
- 1939-1945 - 100,000 Nigerians serve in British Army and Merchant Marine during World War II.
 - 1945 - General strike of African workers on railroads for higher wages.
 - 1946 - New Constitution gives additional advisory powers to Africans.
 - 1948 - Nigerian students agitate for end of racial discrimination in civil service.
 - 1950 - Attempted assassination of Colonial Secretary.
 - 1951 - New Constitution allows national elections. New Assembly gives power to veto legislation.
 - 1952 - National elections held. Power split between tribal factions in East, West and North.
 - Rioting in Northern Nigeria directed against Ibos from Eastern region. 277 killed.
 - 1954 - New Constitution gives more power to regional governments.
 - 1957 - Constitution changed to give Eastern and Western regions internal self-government. British promise eventual self-government.
 - 1959 - All regions & Britain agree to independence.
 - 1960 - Nigeria becomes independent.

102a

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE

STUDY GUIDE

DIRECTIONS: Study the documents in Part III (pp. 126-133) of African Independence in the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA to complete the following:

1. List below the kinds of sources (poem, biography, newspaper article or so forth) included in this section--PART III. Where possible, write the date when each was written.

Type

Date

2. List the themes or ideas that are expressed frequently in all or most of these selections:

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE -- ACTIVITY 3

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: The purpose of this activity is to collect additional data about the roots of the movement for African independence. It involves the analysis of documents in terms of both internal and external evidence. It also involves generalizing about the results of these analyses.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know that the movement for African independence grew out of an African nationalism that had been growing since 1900.

To know that this nationalism passed from a stage of protest and negative criticism to one of positive self-assertion and pride.

To make inferences from data.

To make meaningful generalizations from data.

- B) Materials: study guide -- Activity 3
booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA
study guide -- Activity 4

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Direct the students to refer to their study guide and the student booklet, HISTORY OF AFRICA. Ask the students to describe the types and dates of sources, their authors (African or other), and the kinds of ideas or themes that prevail.

For example, the kinds of sources noted should include:

manifesto
poetry
interviews
speeches
parables
hymns
... etc...

- 2) Ask: HOW DO THE IDEAS IN THE SOURCES BEFORE THE 1930's DIFFER FROM THOSE AFTER? (Have the students examine the documents on pp. 126-133 to help answer this.)

Prior to the 1930's the general theme is one of protest, lament, dissatisfaction.

After the 1930's there emerges a theme of pride, positive self awareness and assertion, exalting negritude and talents of Africa.

- 3) Show how this more positive feeling correlates with heightened activity towards independence in the late 1930's and after (refer to the data card on African Independence).
- 4) Tell the students this feeling of unity and oneness is referred to as nationalism (the word nation may mean a people as well as a political unit). Ask: WHAT GENERAL STATEMENTS CAN WE MAKE ABOUT AFRICAN NATIONALISM?
- 5) Have the students refer to pp. 105-106 in HISTORY OF AFRICA to Lumumba's and Kaunda's lists of grievances. Ask: DO THESE REFLECT THIS PROTEST? HOW?
- 6) Distribute the chart for Activity 4. Direct the students to read pp. 134-139 (Part IV--Leaders for African Independence) in HISTORY OF AFRICA to fill in the information asked for on the chart. The completed chart is to be brought to the next class. Allow the students to start this in class, if time permits.

The early protests originate outside Africa and take the form of manifestos.

Literature provides the avenue of early African protest--eventually it creeps into speeches, songs (more popular public avenues).

Protest gradually becomes more positive, assertive.

These specific grievances, especially Lumumba's, communicate a strong resentment of humiliation, suffering, indignity, thus implying a strong sense of pride, strength and dignity that has been attacked.

Name	Father's Occupation	Early Education (type of school)	University Locations	University Subject Studied	Occupations	Travel Outside of Country	Political Activity	Other Events in Life
1. Nnamdi Azikiwe								
2. Hastings Banda								
3. Felix Houphouet-Boigny								
4. Kenneth Kaunda								
5. Jomo Kenyatta								
6. Patrice Lumumba								
7. Albert Luthuli								
8. Kwame Nkrumah								
9. Julius Nyerere								
10. Leopold Senghor								

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE -- ACTIVITY 4

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity is designed to clarify the nature of the African nationalism that eventually resulted in independence for African nations. It uses biographical data for the purpose of hypothesizing about the fundamental causes of this nationalism as well as about the sequence of events by which it was given expression. This activity prepares the way for the development of concluding generalizations about African independence.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know the common features of the lives of outstanding leaders of African independence.

To know the ways in which the independence movement in the Congo differed from other African nations.

To hypothesize about the sequence of events and causes of African nationalism.

- B) Materials: booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA
study guide -- Activity 4
data card (African Independence)

C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Have the students refer to the charts completed for homework.
Ask: WHAT DO THE LIVES OF MOST OF THESE LEADERS HAVE IN COMMON?

- 2) Ask: THE CAREERS OF WHICH MEN SEEM TO DIFFER FROM THE REST? IN WHAT WAYS?

The students should note:
mission education
travel and study abroad
long interest in independence
form or join early national political groups
received recognition from elsewhere in world
jailed or activities otherwise suppressed
...etc...

Lumumba and Senghor did not generally share all of these noted above.

- 3) Refer to the data sheet on the Congo (African Independence). Ask: HOW IS LUMUMBA'S CAREER REFLECTED IN THE HISTORY OF THE INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENT IN THE CONGO?

- 4) Have the students summarize the sequence of events leading to independence. Ask: WHAT SEEMS TO BE THE GENERAL SEQUENCE OF EVENTS THAT LED TO INDEPENDENCE IN MOST AFRICAN NATIONS? Encourage them to refer to the data card, biographies, charts, etc.

(Students should copy these in their notes.)

- 5) Have the students refer to their materials and notes again. Ask: WHAT ARE THE BASIC SOURCES (CAUSES, ROOTS) OF AFRICA'S INDEPENDENCE? Require examples or supporting evidence.

- 6) Direct the students to check their hypotheses about the sequence of events and the causes of independence with the essay on pp. 140-144 (The Roots of African Independence) in HISTORY OF AFRICA. As this is studied the students should note the major causes of independence.

(Students should bring their newspaper, THE AFRICAN WORLD, to the next class.)

- a) Little agitation or preparation for independence before 1950's.
- b) No education or travel of prominent people outside of colony till after 1950.
- c) Violence and strife after World War II.
- d) Rapid movement toward independence after 1950.

The students may suggest:

- a) European exploitation and discrimination.
- b) Travel and study overseas.
- c) Newspaper and literary protest.
- d) Organization of national protest groups.
- e) Stimulation of World War II
- f) Organized opposition.
- g) Concessions and suppression.
- h) Final independence.

(The list may not be as complete as this; leave it as the students make it.)

The students may list:

- a) European exploitation, mistreatment and discrimination.
- b) Rising self-awareness, pride in being black African stimulated by travel, education and grievances against colonialism.
- c) Events in other countries such as World War II, Ghana. ...etc...

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE -- ACTIVITY 5

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity concludes the study of how and why the nations south of the Sahara became independent nations after World War II. It is intended to help students tie up their inquiry into this period of African history and develop meaningful generalizations about it. At the same time it establishes a relationship between this period and previous African history as well as contemporary and future life in Africa. It is in this way designed to help introduce the students to TOPIC III -- Changing Africa -- which follows.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know the basic causes and sequence of Africa's movement for independence.

To know the relationship of this period of African history to other periods.

To know significant ways in which African history has been shaped by external as well as internal forces.

To make inferences from data.

To draw meaningful generalizations from data.

- B) Materials: booklet: HISTORY OF AFRICA
student notes
newspaper THE AFRICAN WORLD

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

-
- 1) Direct the students to compare their hypotheses about causes and sequence of independence with the homework reading.
Ask: WHAT ARE THE MAIN CAUSES OF AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE?
Require examples and evidence.

(Students should enter these in their notes.)

- The main causes might be organized:
- 1) European exploitation and control--
mistreatment
discrimination
no share in benefits
no say in government
etc...
 - 2) Rising nationalism
Protest to awareness caused by--
overseas travel
education
etc...
 - 3) World events
World Wars I & II
U.N. Charter
etc...

- 2) Ask: WHAT ARE THE MAIN STEPS
IN THE MOVEMENT TO INDEPENDENCE?
Require examples and evidence.

(These should be copied into
the students' notes.)

After Europe's
partition
occupation
exploitation

and as a result of these, there is:
education
travel and study overseas
newspaper and literary protest
organization of national parties
or protest groups
some opposition
stimulation of World War II
organized protest--strikes
concessions and suppression
final independence
...etc...

- 3) Have the students refer to their
newspaper, THE AFRICAN WORLD.
Ask: WHAT ARTICLES IN THIS
REFER TO THIS PERIOD OF AFRICAN
HISTORY?

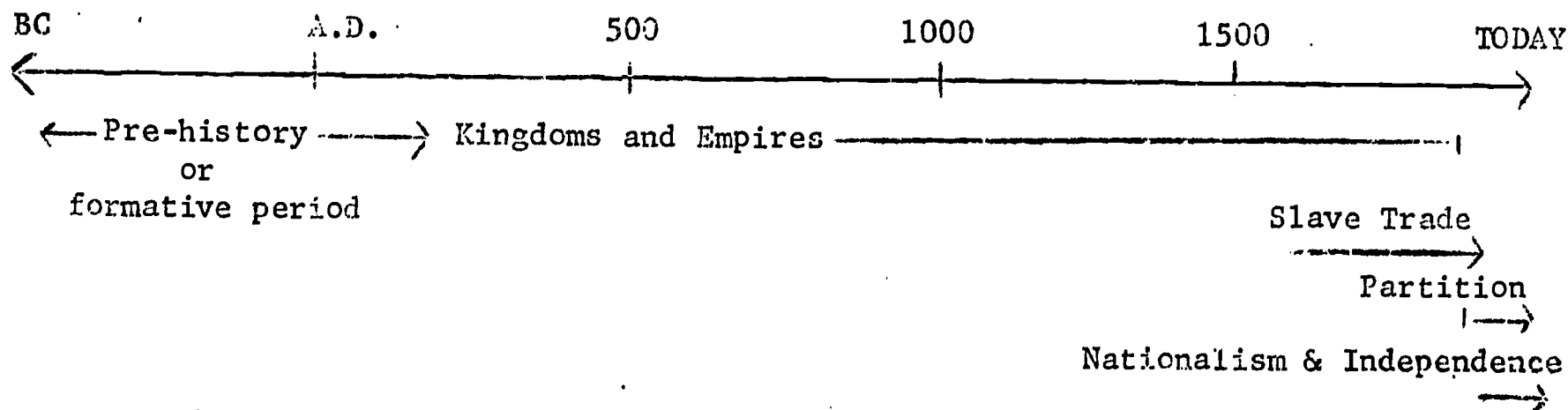
Swaziland p. 2
Mozambique p. 3

- 4) Direct the students to summarize
the major periods for events in
Africa's history. (Have the
students refer to their news-
paper and booklet or notes.)

The early formative period of
civilization and peopling the
continent.

Ancient empires and kingdoms
contact with Europe--slave trade
European partition and colonization
independence.

- 5) Diagram these as a series of time lines on the board:



Use this diagram to illustrate that these periods overlap and in many cases occur simultaneously; that is, Africa still is evolving kingdoms and empires while the slave trade is going on, while Europe is partitioning and asserting colonial control the independence movement begins and grows stronger till independence is once more achieved.

5) Ask: WHAT KIND OF THINGS AFFECT AFRICA NOW THAT GROW OUT OF THIS PERIOD AND THE ENTIRE EUROPEAN COLONIZATION? (Have the students read articles on these topics and discuss them as time permits.)

Internal division ("Colonial Legacy..." p. 2)

racial discrimination ("apartheid" p. 3)

new customs ("New law..." p. 3; Polygamy..." p. 4)

money economy ("Greater Role..." p. 3; "Inflation..." p. 1)

governmental change ("Buganda king..." p. 3)

involvement in world ("Olympics..." p. 4)

...etc...

6) Ask: HOW DOES AFRICA TODAY (AFTER INDEPENDENCE) COMPARE TO PRE-EUROPEAN AFRICA--WHEN IT WAS INDEPENDENT AND A LAND OF MANY KINGDOMS AND EMPIRES?

Africa today is a mixture of western ideas and institutions and African ideas and institutions.

Today there are internationally recognized--but still disputed--boundaries.

Today there is more widespread contact with outside world

Today there is greater change going on in lives of the people.

Fewer political units today.

Greater awareness of ancient heritage today (Ghana).

...etc...

7) There is no homework. Students should bring the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA to the next class.

AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

TOPIC II

CONCLUSION

THE HISTORY OF AFRICA

A TEACHING GUIDE

PROJECT AFRICA

Carnegie-Mellon University

1969

110

THE HISTORY OF AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

CONCLUSION

This unit concludes the study of Africa's past. It focuses on identifying the major characteristics of African history and on the forces which have operated in the past to shape contemporary Africa and Africans. It is designed to bring together the learnings developed in the study of the preceding units, to apply these to new data and to develop generalizations that will make this knowledge meaningful and relevant to the students themselves. It is, thus, an effort to make sense out of the study of considerable data and to pull from it knowledge and insights that have meaning for students today.

This unit also provides an opportunity to examine some of the difficulties and limitations inherent in the search for knowledge, especially about Africa's past. It offers the students an opportunity to clarify the nature of history. At the same time it requires them to use the insights thus developed to evaluate a view of the African past that represents in general the prevalent opinion of the uninformed. In engaging in these activities, the students will conceptualize their study of Africa to date.

The major objectives of this unit are:

To know the major features of Africa's past.

To know that a people's way of life is shaped largely by their habitat, culture, level of technology and historical experience.

To know some limitations on the study of African history.

To refine the skills of intellectual inquiry, especially those of analysis, evaluation and synthesis.

This unit consists of three activities:

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Material</u>
1	To identify limitations in the use of written data.	booklet study guide
2	To generalize about significant features of the African past.	booklet newspaper study guide
3	To generalize about Africa and the reasons why it is as it is.	student letter newspaper booklet

CONCLUSION -- ACTIVITY 1

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity initiates a summation of the significant features of African history. The emphasis here is on a review of the major periods of Africa's past by examining some of the problems inherent in the study of the written sources used to reconstruct or interpret that past. This study provides a basis for developing valid generalizations about the African experience and the nature of Contemporary Africa which are the major objectives of the succeeding activities.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know the types of sources used to study the history of Africa.

To know some limitations inherent in the use of these sources.

To make inferences from data.

- B) Materials: booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA
student notes
study guide for Activity 2

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Point out to the class that today and for the next several days the task will be to sum up and evaluate their study of Africa's history. Ask: WHAT STRIKES YOU AS THE MOST IMPORTANT THINGS WE HAVE LEARNED ABOUT THE HISTORY OF AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA? Require examples.

(List these on the board. Have the students list them in their notes. Allow only 5-8 min. for this.)

- 2) Ask: WHAT DID WE USE TO FIND OUT ABOUT AFRICAN HISTORY?

The students may suggest:

- a) Africa has a long history extending perhaps back to the origin of man.

- b) There is much about Africa about which we know little and incompletely.

Students may suggest:

books	charts
maps	tapes
pictures	...etc...

a) Accept a few answers. Then divide the class into 4-6 groups. Direct each group to go through their notes and the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA and to make a list of all the different kinds of sources or ways used to study Africa. (Allow 10-15 min. for this.)

b) Reconvene the class and have a spokesman report for each group (ask one spokesman to report perhaps three items; then have the next one report 3 more and so on; when all have reported open discussion to the class so anyone may add any other items not yet mentioned).

(Write them on the board.)

3) Ask: WHAT KIND OF PROBLEMS DO THESE MAKE FOR ANYONE WHO WANTS TO KNOW ABOUT AFRICAN HISTORY?

4) Focus on the problem of accuracy. Ask: WHAT COULD MAKE A PIECE OF DATA INACCURATE?

5) Point out the differences between primary and secondary sources. Then, have the students open their booklets (HISTORY OF AFRICA) to p. 25. Direct them to examine the last paragraph. Point out this author (Ibn Battuta) is:

a) Giving his opinion as fact--without identifying it:
"Another of their good qualities is...."

The kinds of sources that may be listed are:

diaries	parables
novels	ships' logs
autobiography	travellers acc'ts
biography	photos
charts/graphs	archeological
maps	reports
poems	radio carbon
anecdotes	dating
newspaper	statistics
articles	...etc...
interpretive	
essays	

Problems cited may include:

accuracy
authenticity
completeness
what is fact or what is opinion
conflicting evidence
...etc....

When it is second or third-hand reporting

When it is distorted by the prejudices of the author

When opinions are given as facts

When one judges one group on his, not their, values

...etc...

- b) Judging these people on his own values--not theirs--when he says wearing shirts is good, their zeal for education is good, but their nakedness in public, ceremonies, etc. are bad (if these people thought they were bad presumably they would not do them.)
- 6) Thus, this selection tells us as much about Ibn Battuta and his culture as it does about the people of Mali.
- a) Direct the students to turn to p. 53. Ask: WHAT DOES THIS JOURNAL ENTRY TELL ABOUT THIS SHIP'S SURGEON?
- 7) Direct the students to look at the final quote at the bottom of p. 72 and top of p. 73. Ask: WHAT EVIDENCE OF THE AUTHOR'S BIAS IS THERE?
- 8) Summarize some of the things that might limit or distort the accuracy of the documents used to study Africa--or any history.
- 9) For homework, distribute the study guide for Activity 2 and direct the students to pick one source in each part of the booklet (Units 1-5) and for each complete the chart as directed.

He is totally insensitive to the death and destruction caused by his and his ship's presence; all he is concerned about is trade--money!

This passage is based on the unstated belief that whites are superior to blacks.

When the source

- ...uses emotive words.
- ...is biased on unstated assumptions.
- ...judges on another set of values.
- ...gives opinions as facts.
- ...is a secondary account.
- ...etc...

EVALUATION OF SOURCES ON AFRICA

Concl, 2

SOURCE	PRIMARY OR SECONDARY	NATIONALITY OF AUTHOR	EXAMPLES OF BIAS, UNSTATED ASSUMPTIONS, EMOTIVE WORDS, ETC.	REASONS WHY THIS SELECTION IS RELIABLE OR UNRELIABLE AS A SOURCE OF INFORMATION ABOUT THE TOPIC.
I				
II				
III				
IV				
V				

CONCLUSION -- ACTIVITY 2

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity is designed to explore further the problems and limitations inherent in the study of history in general and the history of Africa south of the Sahara in particular. It also provides an opportunity for the students to use what knowledge and skills they have gained in studying this history to evaluate one person's opinion about African history. In this way, the students begin to tie together the most significant aspects of this knowledge.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know the limitations upon a complete understanding of Africa's past.

To know significant features of Africa's past.

To make inferences from data.

To evaluate data in the light of specific criteria.

- B) Material: newspaper THE AFRICAN WORLD
study guide
booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA

- C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

-
- 1) Direct the students to refer to their completed study guides and the booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA. Ask for examples of emotive words, unstated assumptions, ethnocentric bias, primary and secondary sources, etc. If there are any questions about these have everyone refer to the original in the booklet.
 - 2) Ask for volunteers to report on the reliability of sources they used. Require reasons and evidence for their answers.

- 3) Have the students generalize about sources of information on Africa. Ask: WHAT CAN WE SAY ABOUT THE PROBLEMS OF STUDYING AFRICAN HISTORY?

Have the students comment on:
types of sources
authors
methods that could be used
limitations of sources

- 4) In conclusion, point out that all history is really just interpretation of what we think happened based on incomplete and sometimes distorted data reported by a variety of other people. History is interpretation--inference--interpolation; not a body of absolute facts.

- 5) Have the students refer to the newspaper AFRICAN WORLD, p. 2 To the Editor. Direct them to study the first "letter" (by Mitchell). Ask: HOW ACCURATE IS THIS? WHY?

(Do not elaborate on student ideas; the purpose here is only to get them to think about what they have been doing the preceding weeks in relation to this "letter".)

The following might be offered:

There is a scarcity of written materials on early Africa by people who lived there.

An author's frame of reference (bias, etc.) may distort the accuracy of what he reports.

Much of what we know is based on data gathered by anthropologists, archeologists, travellers, etc.

A great variety of sources are used in studying Africa.

...etc...

(This is an actual quotation by a real Philip Mitchell who really was the colonial governor of Kenya

Students may note that Mitchell's comments are:

- a) factually inaccurate--
Africans did have currency (cowrie shells)
Africans did build in stone (Zimbabwe) and did work in iron, bronze, ivory
- b) loaded with value judgements
--bark cloth is worse than other cloth
--people shouldn't go naked

- 5) When several students have commented on the accuracy or validity of this "letter," direct them, for homework, to write a reply to the editor either defending or criticising Mitchell's point of view. They should review units 1-5 before doing this. The completed letter should be brought to the next class. (Allow them to start in class if time permits.)

- c) often opinion presented as if it were true--"Africans never invented anything" is an opinion that ignores African invention in iron-working, creating political empires, religious systems, farming techniques, poetry, etc...

CONCLUSION -- ACTIVITY 3

A TEACHING GUIDE

- A) Introduction: This activity concludes the study of the history of the peoples living south of the Sahara. It has two main purposes. One is to tie up the major themes of study to date--to answer the questions "What is an African like?" and "Why is he the way he is?" The other is to explore the nature of the forces which operate to make people in general the way they are and to relate these to the student's own lives.

The specific objectives of this activity are:

To know significant features of Africa's past.

To know the major characteristics of Africans.

To know that a people's way of life is shaped by its habitat, level of technology, culture and history.

To make meaningful generalizations from data.

- B) Materials: student "letter to the editor"
student notes
newspaper THE AFRICAN WORLD
booklet HISTORY OF AFRICA

C) Suggested Teaching Strategy:

- 1) Begin the class by having several volunteers read their letters or report what positions they took in regard to Mitchell's letter--and the evidence they cited in support of their positions.

(List the reasons for supporting or criticising Mitchell in separate columns on the board.)

- 2) Ask: WHAT DO YOU CONSIDER TO BE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT THING ABOUT AFRICA'S HISTORY? Require supporting evidence. List these on the board and have the students copy these into their notes. (Involve as many students as possible.)

3) Ask: TO WHAT EXTENT HAS AFRICA CHANGED IN THE PAST 5000 YEARS? HAS IT BEEN STATIC? Require evidence.

4) Ask: WHAT IS AN AFRICAN OF TODAY? WHAT ARE HIS MAIN CHARACTERISTICS?

5) Ask: WHY IS HE THE WAY HE IS?

6) Conclude by having the students reflect on the degree to which these same kind of forces--culture, history, habitat, etc.--help make them the way they (the students) are today.

African society has never been completely unchanging or static. In the past 5000 years it has changed from pre-iron age civilization to modern society.

An African of today is someone who:
 ...is very conscious of a long historical heritage.
 ...is very conscious of being looked down on and mistreated by Europeans (whites).
 ...is very proud of his newly won independence (eventhough it may not yet be complete)
 ...is anxious to share the material prosperity of the Western world.
 ...has a very definite culture in which he lives and moves.
 ...etc...

Because of...

- a) the habitat in which he lives.
- b) his changing technology.
- c) his culture.
- d) his relations with other peoples.
- e) his history--the influence of outside forces (Islam, European slave trade, Western technology, colonialism, etc.)
- f) What he aspires to (equal treatment; control of his own life and the fruits of his labor and the resources of his land; respect and dignity; a voice in world affairs.)

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TOPIC II

HISTORY OF AFRICA

SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

PROJECT AFRICA
Carnegie-Mellon University
1969

AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

A Program of Study for
Secondary School Social Studies Students

TOPIC II

HISTORY OF AFRICA

PROJECT AFRICA

Carnegie-Mellon University
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

1969

NOTE

This is the student text for the unit on History of Africa. It is to be used in conjunction with the instructional materials and lesson plans contained in the Teacher's Guide for Topic II.

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This is only one of the series of booklets which contain the instructional materials and teaching guides developed by Project Africa for use in teaching about Africa south of the Sahara to students in grades 7-10 in American schools. The complete set of booklets includes:

1. Africa South of the Sahara - Introduction: A Teaching Guide
2. Africa South of the Sahara - Topic I: A Teaching Guide
3. Peoples of Africa South of the Sahara
4. Africa South of the Sahara - Topic II: A Teaching Guide
5. History of Africa South of the Sahara
6. Africa South of the Sahara - Topic III: A Teaching Guide
7. Changing Africa South of the Sahara

INTRODUCTION

This instructional program was developed by the staff and consultants of Project Africa, a social studies curriculum development project commissioned by the United States Office of Education. This project was originally located at The Ohio State University. It was moved to Pittsburgh's Carnegie-Mellon University in September 1968.

Project Africa was created on March 1, 1967. It was a 40-month project designed specifically to develop inquiry-oriented instructional materials and guides for use in improving learning about Africa south of the Sahara in grades 7-12 of American schools. The instructional materials contained herein were the first of a number of such materials intended for use in teaching about Africa south of the Sahara in 7-10th grade world geography, world history or world cultures courses. They represent the results of extensive research during the summer and fall of 1967 and of limited classroom try-outs during the spring of 1968.

These materials are in the form submitted to nation-wide field testing during the 1969 spring semester. By examining and adapting them to their own situations local schools will thus be able to include a vital, up-to-date, stimulating study of Africa south of the Sahara, its peoples and their culture as an integral part of their secondary school social studies curricula.

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These materials represent the results of the initial phase of Project Africa. They are only approximations of finished instructional materials and should be subject to extensive revision and refinement. It was the purpose of the classroom tryouts--for which these were prepared--to provide the experience and information needed to develop effective and worthwhile materials for use in teaching about Africa south of the Sahara in 7-10th grade social studies programs. The evaluation of the results of this experimentation is included in the Final Report of Project Africa (1970).

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Summer 1969

CONTENTS

UNIT I

THE MYSTERY OF ZIMBABWE 1

UNIT II

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS 5

UNIT III

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE 18

UNIT IV

AFRICA UNDER EUROPEAN RULE 35

UNIT V

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE 53

UNIT I

THE MYSTERY OF ZIMBABWE

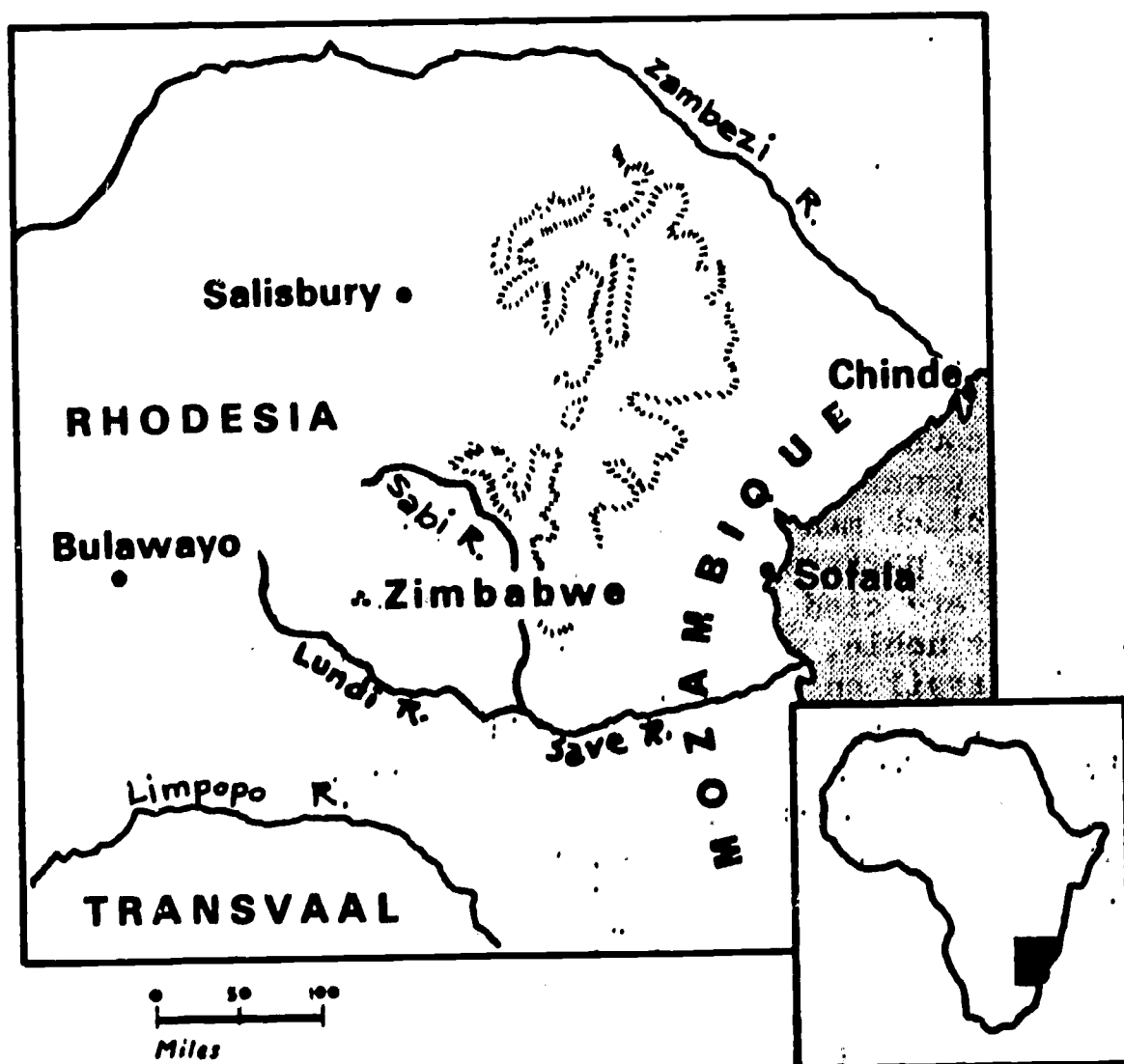
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THE MYSTERY OF ZIMBABWE

One of the greatest mysteries in Africa south of the Sahara centers on a vast network of ancient stone ruins in Rhodesia, Botswana, and South Africa. Some experts claim that the ruins represent buildings constructed by ancient Phoenician peoples who ventured into the unknown lands of southern Africa before the birth of Christ. Others suggest that the ruins tell a story of black African achievements from roughly A.D. 1000 to 1800.

WHAT WAS ZIMBABWE?

The largest of these ruins is at Zimbabwe in modern Rhodesia. Known in legend as the capital of the ancient empire of the Monomotapa (king), Zimbabwe remained shrouded in secrecy for centuries. Most of what was known or rumored in Europe about this city originated in reports of early



Portuguese adventurers and explorers. But for nearly 350 years after their arrival in East Africa the exact location and origin of the city remained a mystery.

Early Legend About Zimbabwe

The Portuguese first reached the east coast of Africa in the late 1400's. During the first decade of the next century they established considerable trade with coastal cities including the Muslim city of Sofala. Close contact with the merchants there

made the Portuguese aware of the existence of Zimbabwe and Monomotapa. The following are excerpts from letters and reports written by various Portuguese to officials in Lisbon:

(from: Diogo de Alencova -- 1506)

The kingdom, Sir...

Basil Davidson, The African Past. New York:
Grosset and Dunlap, 1967. p. 148.

...penalty of death.

(from: Duarte Barbosa -- 1517-18)

Beyond this country...

Basil Davidson, The African Past. New York:
Grosset and Dunlap, 1967. p. 151.

...great traders....

(adapted from: Joao dos Santos -- 1609)

...near Massapa is...

Basil Davidson, The African Past. New York:
Grosset and Dunlap, 1967. pp. 161-162.

...die condemned persons.

The Discovery of Zimbabwe

The first white man to see Zimbabwe was probably an American hunter who, in 1868, reported seeing a large collection of stone ruins near where Zimbabwe was thought to exist. But he left no other records of what he saw. Not until 1871 did a precise description of this legendary city reach the Western world. In that year, a German geologist, Karl Mauch made what he called his greatest achievement:

I had heard...

R. N. Hall, Great Zimbabwe. New York: E. P. Dutton
and Company, 1905. pp. 8-11.

...these puzzling structures.

Within the next fifty years ten groups of scholars examined these ruins. One of them reported in 1904:

The recent examination...

R. N. Hall, Great Zimbabwe. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1905. xv, xvi, xix.

...confirms this conclusion.

WHO BUILT ZIMBABWE?

Many of the first Europeans to study Zimbabwe's ruins concluded that they had found the fabled mines of King Solomon which are described in the Old Testament. Such an idea struck a romantic note in the mind of Europe around 1900. It spread rapidly.

I

Professor A. H. Keane wrote several articles and a book in 1905 to prove that the Zimbabwe ruins were directly related to the mines of King Solomon (tenth century B.C.) and that the builders of Zimbabwe were Phoenecians:

I believe the...

R. N. Hall, Great Zimbabwe. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1905. xxxi, xxxiii, and xxxiv.

...South Arabian uplands....

TERRACED SLOPES (South Arabia)

"In one district...

R. N. Hall, Great Zimbabwe. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1905. xxxiv.

...of them unrepaired"....

TERRACED SLOPES
(South Africa)

"The extent of...

R. N. Hall, Great Zimbabwe. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1905. xxxv.

...of hewn stone.

...My statements regarding...

R. N. Hall, Great Zimbabwe. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1905. xxxviii-xl.

...themselves in Rhodesia?

II

Keane's explanation has been challenged by many scholars. It has also received further support. In 1965 A. J. Brumer, a south African economist and finance expert, wrote a book entitled Zimbabwe: Rhodesia's Ancient Greatness. He has explored Zimbabwe and its legends for years and this study has led him to conclusions that support Keane's hypothesis.

When in 64 B.C.,...

A. J. Brumer, Zimbabwe: Rhodesia's Ancient Greatness. Johannesburg: Hugh Keartland Publishers, 1965. pp. 79-81.

...more remote horizons.

III

There is, however, another hypothesis about who built Zimbabwe. It is best stated by Roger Summers, Curator and Keeper of Antiquities of the Rhodesian National Museum. He has studied the ruins extensively and has applied the most advanced scientific techniques to his collection and analysis of data.

In 1929 Miss Gertrude...

Roger Summers, Guide to the Zimbabwe Ruins. Revised Edition. Salisbury: Commission for The Preservation of Natural and Historical Monuments and Relics, 1964. pp. 6-7.

...in Southern Africa.

UNIT II

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS

PART I

Man has lived in Africa perhaps longer than in any other continent. Monuments to his past achievements there are scattered widely over the landscape. In North Africa can be found the pyramids and remains of temples, irrigation systems and other structures built as many as 5000 years ago. In the central Sahara, in Tassili, can be found paintings of horse-drawn chariots, battles, ceremonial dances, crocodiles, herds of cattle and other animals that are estimated to have been made at least 6000 years ago. And, in southern Africa--in Rhodesia--stand the great stone ruins of ancient Zimbabwe.

Great Zimbabwe

Little is yet known about Zimbabwe or about the people who built it. There is some evidence that the site on which it stands was occupied as early as 300 A.D. by a farming people known as the Karanga. In the 700's a new people moved into the area from the northeast. These people built homes and compounds of stone throughout the region south of the Zambezi; ruins of almost 300 of these structures have been counted to date. But Great Zimbabwe is by far the largest and most impressive of all of these.

A large stone enclosure was apparently constructed there about 1000 A.D., perhaps around the same time that William the Conqueror was making his successful conquest of England. So impressive was this structure--no mortar was used at all--that many scholars consider it to have been the home of the king--the Monomatapa; within its walls he lived with his wives, royal ministers, craftsmen and servants; outside in mud and stone houses, the remains of which are today scattered for miles around the enclosure, lived many of his subjects.

Great Zimbabwe was probably the center of a vast empire. Here the king held court, dispensed justice and presided over the smelting of gold and other ores mined nearby. In fact, over 60,000 copper, iron and gold mines have been discovered in the region around Zimbabwe. The ores from these mines--especially gold--were the chief source of wealth for the Monomatapa and his realm. These were shipped to Kilwa and Sofala, large trading cities on the coast, where they were exchanged for glass beads made in India, Chinese porcelain and copper coins.

The Monomatapa himself was a "god-king." The available evidence suggests that:

...His people approached...

Margaret Shinnie, Ancient African Kingdoms. New York:
St. Martin's Press, 1965. p. 119.

...service, or warriors....

The Monomatapa once ruled an area larger than Rhodesia today. But sometime during the late 1400's he and his people moved north toward the Zambezi River and Zimbabwe was taken over by another people from the West--the Rowzi. Around 1600 the tower and acropolis may have been added to the structures that already existed there. In 1834 these people, too, abandoned Zimbabwe in the face of a Zulu invasion and the buildings fell into ruin.

The Nile Valley and Aethiopia

This was not the only empire in ancient Africa, however. There were many more. One of the most famous was that of Kush or Nubia--"the land of the blacks"--as the Egyptians called it. This was a kingdom that straddled the big bend of the Nile southward from the present-day Aswan dam. Its first capital was at Napata, and its peoples traded and warred with Egypt for nearly 3000 years. Many of its citizens served in the armies of the pharaohs and ships of the Egyptian navy were built of Kushite wood. From Kush Egyptian caravans occasionally travelled south into the interior of Africa to return with elephant ivory, ebony, spices, leopard skins and slaves; one such expedition in 2500 B.C. returned with 7000 "prisoners" and over 200,000 head of cattle!

SOME CITIES, KINGDOMS AND EMPIRES
1000 B.C. -- 1800 A.D.



For many centuries, Kush was even ruled by Egypt in spite of occasional revolts and brief periods of independence. In 950 B.C., at the same time King Solomon was ruling in Israel, the Kushites launched one of these revolts, regained their independence, and several hundred years later attacked and conquered Egypt itself. But Kushite rule of the lower Nile was short-lived. Assyrian armies forced them out of Egypt by 650 B.C.

Thereafter, the Kushites maintained only commercial contact with Egypt. They moved their capital to Meroe further south where they built a flourishing trade with the African interior, Arabia and even China by way of India. They developed their own system of writing and began--around 350 B.C.--to smelt iron and produce iron tools, weapons and other goods. Kush was at the height of its influence between 250 B.C. and 100 A.D. when it was, as some scholars have noted, the Pittsburgh of Africa! It is quite probable, in fact, that it is from Meroe that knowledge of iron working spread throughout all of Africa south of the Sahara.

Kush, however, was eventually wiped out by the armies of another kingdom that lay to the south and east, in the region referred to by the ancients as Aethiopia--a Greek word meaning "the country of those who burn their faces black." This kingdom was known as Axum. It evolved in a region settled originally by peoples from the Arabian peninsula. By 100 B.C. these people had developed a highly organized society, with large cities. Its seaport, Adulis, was an important stopping place for Egyptian ships engaged in trade down the East Africa coast. Axum also had well established codes of law, and carefully terraced and irrigated farms. By 330 A.D. its armies had conquered Yemen across the Red Sea, had moved southward into the interior of Africa and had even warred against Egypt and Rome. It was in the course of these wars that the Kushite kingdom was destroyed.

Like Kush, Axum became famous throughout the Middle East--and beyond. Greek was the language of the royal court. In 333 A.D. its king was converted to Christianity and decreed it to be the state religion. Monasteries were established; special rituals were written. Aksumite armies were sent out to protect Christians from persecution in various parts of the Arabian peninsula. Trade flourished. Adulis was a busy seaport into which sailed ships with goods from Italy, Byzantium (Constantinople), Persia, India and Ceylon as well as from farther south along the East African coast.

But countless religious wars in Arabia drained Axum of its strength. When the Muslim Arabs began to expand into Africa shortly after 700 A.D., one of their first targets was Adulis. In 710 it was destroyed. Thereupon, the Aksumite kings found themselves cut off from the rest of the world. Soon they were left in control of only a tiny, land-locked domain in what is now northeastern Ethiopia. The western world did not forget Axum, however. So great a champion of Christianity had it been that even during Europe's middle ages Europeans continued to believe that a great Christian kingdom, ruled by a legendary priest named Prester John, flourished in this region. Letters supposedly written by this king even circulated in Europe. But try as they might, no one ever found his kingdom.

Eventually a new state did emerge in this region. In the middle 1200's the king of what was left of the old Aksumite kingdom moved his capital to the Shoan plateau in central Ethiopia. About a century later its armies defeated the Muslim Arabs and gained complete control over these highlands. Amharic was made the official language. Coptic Christianity was made the official religion. By 1400 a new empire, that of Ethiopia, had been established, ruled over by an emperor who claimed to be a direct descendent of King Solomon and the famous Ethiopian Queen of Sheba.

The West African Sudan

Important kingdoms existed elsewhere in Africa south of the Sahara, too. About the same time that Axum was becoming internationally famous--between 300 and 400 A.D.--so also was a kingdom in the western part of the Sudan (originally an Arab word meaning "black," Sudan is now used to refer to that part of Africa lying between the southern edge of the Sahara and the rainforests farther south). This was the kingdom of Ghana.

Ghana lay almost 1000 miles north and west of present-day Ghana. Its name was derived from the title of its king--the Ghana. Like other African kingdoms it had no fixed boundaries; instead, it consisted only of an area and peoples which were completely dominated by a certain ruler, in this instance the Ghana. The inhabitants paid taxes to him, served in his armies, obeyed his laws, and received protection from him. Consequently the Ghana's empire was constantly expanding and contracting as it gained or lost or regained dominion over various peoples and regions.

At the peak of its power (900-1100 A.D.) Ghana dominated the Niger River basin. It stretched over 750 miles from the middle Senegal River in the west to beyond the big bend in the Niger to the east. Its capital was Kumbi Salih, a city on the southern border of Mauritania about 200 miles north of present-day Bamako. Kumbi was a large city, more than a mile square, replete with large mansions and market places. In the ruins of this city have been found glass weights, beautiful pottery and iron scissors, weapons and tools.

Ghana straddled the routes linking the trade centers of Morocco with the great gold mines of Wangara. It monopolized sale of this gold, and carefully kept its place of origin a deep secret. Because of this it became a wealthy kingdom, so much so, in fact, that it was known throughout Arab lands as the "land of gold." Gold traded through Ghana was used throughout Europe until the discovery of the Americas; in return, Ghanaians imported salt, copper, cloth, horses, swords and similar goods. Because of its great wealth it attracted foreign invaders. In 1076-77 parts of it were conquered by Muslims from the north and west; in 1203, after having earlier regained its independence, it was conquered again by the Sosso peoples who in turn were conquered by the armies of neighboring Mali around 1235.

As a result of this conquest Mali became the strongest kingdom in the Sudan. It remained thus for almost two centuries. It was a kingdom of the Mandingo, a people converted to Islam by the same invaders who conquered

Ghana in 1076. For many years it commanded the allegiance of only a few people, but in the 1230's a military leader--Sundiata, a crippled son of the Mali king and the only one of 12 brothers to escape death at the hands of jealous rivals--succeeded to the throne, organized great armies and swept over the area once ruled by Ghana. In 1240 he destroyed Ghana's capital and established Mali as the most important kingdom in the Sudan. Eventually this kingdom reached from the Atlantic on the west to the great bend of the Niger on the east--a distance of more than 1000 miles!

Sundiata died in 1255 and for some years Mali was on the brink of falling apart. But his grandson, Mansa (king) Musa quickly rebuilt its prestige and power. He ruled from 1307 to 1332. His pilgrimage to Mecca in 1324 awakened the Mediterranean world to the power and prestige of Mali. Before him, on his journey, walked 500 slaves, each carrying a six pound staff of gold. Behind him came 100 camels each loaded with 300 pounds of gold. And behind them came scores more of camels carrying food and other provisions. His entourage took Cairo by storm; his generosity caused a severe fall in the price of gold in the local gold markets. He gave freely to charities, the poor and even local officials--in fact, he gave away so much he ran out of gold by the time he was ready to return to Mali. But he was able to borrow enough to get back to Mali.

Mali, as Ghana, had a monopoly on the gold trade. Mansa Musa was very wealthy since he owned all the gold that was found. In addition, he secured tribute from outlying provinces, he taxed all trade and the sales of all animals and crops, and took many spoils in war. At the same time he had mosques built and contributed greatly to the university at Timbuctu. So famous and wealthy was he that European map makers generally drew his picture in West Africa to signify the power of Mali. But after his death Mali began to decline and by 1600 it had shrunk to its original size, a tiny state on the headwaters of the Niger.

Mali was succeeded by Songhai, the largest and wealthiest of all Africa's Sudanic kingdoms. It, too, was a Muslim kingdom. It had existed since 1000 A.D. as a small state centered around the city of Gao on the Niger River. In 1464 a new king ascended the throne--Sonni Ali. He immediately undertook a series of conquests that destroyed nearby kingdoms and brought Songhai wealth and power. In 1468 his armies occupied Timbuctu and most of the lands once dominated by Mali.

Sonni Ali was a renowned warrior. It was said of him that he was:

always victorious and...

Robert I. Rotberg, A Political History of Tropical Africa. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1965. p. 47.

...ravaging their territory.

But he died when his empire had reached its peak of fame--in 1492, the same year that Columbus discovered the Americas.

His successor, Askia Mohammed, turned from conquest to organizing the empire --a land that was almost half the size of the United States today. He placed governors in charge of the provinces into which Songhai was divided; selected officials to be in charge of finance, agriculture and justice; and appointed local tax collectors and market inspectors. Special attention was given to the great university at Timbuctu where professors from all over the Muslim world came to teach law, literature, grammar, rhetoric and theology.

Eventually Songhai, too, was destroyed by its rivals. Around 1590 a small Morroccan army of mercenaries using cannon and guns routed its armies and devastated the countryside searching for gold. Songhai never recovered. As an observer of the time noted:

From that moment...

quoted in: F. Seth Singleton and John Shingler,
Africa In Perspective. New York: Hayden Book
Company, Inc., 1967, p. 35.

...disasters and violence.

There were many other much smaller kingdoms that existed in western Africa throughout the 1300 years that Ghana, Mali and Songhai dominated the region. The destruction of Songhai did not end their existence or the growth of new ones. During the years after 1300 a great variety of states sprang up, flourished briefly and then slowly disappeared. Most of these were located in or along the edge of the great rainforests along the coast from Senegal to the Niger. Most, like Ife, Oyo, Dahomey and Benin became strong only after 1500. The Ashanti union of the Akan peoples, for example, was not created until Osei Tutu brought together a number of small states south of the Volta River in the early 1700's.

These states were relatively small and each was centered around only one or two towns or cities. Some existed by trading gold and others by trading slaves. Some, like the Hausa city-states of Kano, Zaria and Katsina in northern Nigeria, were Moslem but most were not. Benin even exchanged ambassadors with the Portuguese almost a decade before Columbus set sail for the Americas. Almost all of these kingdoms maintained standing armies and practiced a type of king-worship in which the king was considered to be virtually divine.

Central Africa

Highly organized kingdoms also existed in central Africa. One of the most powerful of these--Kanem--started in the area northeast of Lake Chad about the same time that Mali was beginning to develop as a kingdom further west. The Kanuri peoples living in the Chad basin were united under one Moslem ruler in the 1100's. For almost two centuries they engaged in repeated wars and trade across the Sahara and their kings frequently visited Mecca. Eventually--not long after the death of Mansa Musa--the capital of this empire was moved to Bornu, a city south west of Lake Chad. This city was almost two miles wide; it was surrounded by a great wall 20 feet high with a moat-like ditch around it; a large, red brick palace was built for the king.

This Kanem-Bornu empire had one of the most feared armies in all Africa. Its armored cavalry--both men and horses wore quilted cloth armor--was the scourge of the central Sudan. Its kings had even imported Turkish military instructors and guns and cannons by the nineteenth century. For centuries it engaged in wars against peoples living to the south and west. It lived off the slave trade. But by the late 1800's it, too, began to disappear.

An equally powerful--though not as fearsome--state was that of the Kongo in the south central portion of the continent. This empire was created by peoples who moved into the plateau regions south of the Congo river sometime between 1100 and the 1300's and gradually enlarged their holdings. They were governed by a king elected from descendants of earlier kings by a special electoral council, and by local officials appointed by provincial governors or the king himself. There were judges, palace officials, and a royal bodyguard. After 1512 there was a Portuguese advisor who sat in the electoral council on equal terms with the other officials. The entire governmental system was supported by a complex system of finance and taxation in which the king owned even the source of all the money!

East Africa and the Land of Zanj

Two types of states existed in East Africa. One was like the kingdom of the Monomatapa--a strong state that ruled over considerable territory from a central capital. Ethiopia was such a kingdom. So was that of the Baganda--a people living in what is now Uganda, on the shores of Lake Victoria. This kingdom began to emerge in the late 1400's and grew into a powerful state some two-hundred years later. It was headed by a king called the Kabaka who ruled with the aid of a very elaborate hierarchy of officials and assistants.

The other type of state was usually located on the seacoast. It was small, centering on, and indeed usually consisting only of, a single seaport or trading city. Such cities dotted the coastline from Somalia to Madagascar, a region traditionally referred to by the Arabs after 900 A.D. as the land--and kingdoms--of Zanj.

This region had long been an important trade center. Phoenicians had sailed along its coast 600 years before the birth of Christ; Egyptian ships too, had traded there during this time. A Greek merchant wrote a guide to part of this coast about 110 A.D.--The Periplus of the Erythraean Sea. After 600 A.D. Zanj was the home of a wide variety of peoples--including Persians, Malays, Indians, Arabs and Bantu--and a major source of gold, ivory and slaves.

The land of Zanj had many important trading centers, among them Lamu, Malindi, Mombasa, Zanzibar and Sofala. One of the most famous of these city-states was Kilwa, on the coast of present-day Tanzania. It was reportedly built in 975 A.D. by a Sultan who had fled his kingdom in Arabia; by 1300 it had become one of the strongest kingdoms on the coast having conquered Zanzibar and secured a monopoly on the gold and ivory trade from the interior and constructed a series of defensive forts to protect it from invaders.

A great deal of the Zanj trade was with China and India. This trade was already in existence before the arrival of the Arabs in the 900's but increased an estimated ten times after that. Pearls, gold (much of it from Zimbabwe), tortoise shells, ivory, rhinoceros horns, ostrich feathers, zebras and other exotic animals composed the bulk of the exports; Chinese porcelain, Indian cloth, dishware from Siam and foods from Sumatra were imported.

But just as in the case of Ghana and Mali these states attracted foreigners who sacked and conquered in their quest for wealth and riches. Between 1400 and 1600 the Portuguese destroyed most of the Zanj states in their search for gold and riches. Thereafter, control of these fell into the hands of various Arab sultans and eventually British, German and other European governments.

Summary

These were not the only kingdoms, empires or states that existed in Africa south of the Sahara in early times. There were many more. Some of them flourished long before there were any Greek or Roman empires; others achieved wealth and power while Europe was still in the throes of the barbarian invasions of the Dark Ages and the Mayans were ruling Yucatan in Central America; still others became prominent in the years between 1000 and 1400 A.D.--while Europe was experiencing a renaissance (rebirth) in literature, art and all aspects of culture, while the Aztecs were ruling in Mexico, the Incas in Peru and the Iroquois were migrating into the northeastern United States. Still others did not spring up until the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. But all of these did exist. Africa south of the Sahara was never void of humanity or civilized society. Many of its great empires were well known in northern Africa and, indeed, throughout the Middle East and Asia even though they were unknown to most Europeans.

BLACK AFRICAN KINGDOMS

PART II

THE EMPIRE OF GHANA

One of the first known descriptions of the western Sudan was written by an Arab geographer, Al-Bakri, about 1060 A.D. Although he never left Spain, where he was born, his description of ancient Ghana was so accurate that he must certainly have had access to excellent sources.

The city of...

Roland and Caroline Oliver, ed., Africa in the Days of Exploration. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965. pp. 9-11.

...are very small.

THE SILENT TRADE

Abdul Hasan Ali al-Mas'udi was a geographer-explorer whose home was Baghdad. He travelled widely throughout the African Sudan and along the coast of Zanj. In 990 A.D. he wrote the following description of the "silent trade"--the way in which Ghanaians traded with outsiders:

The kingdom of...

Robert I. Rotberg, A Political History of Tropical Africa. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1965, pp. 36-37.

...bargain is concluded.

THE KINGDOM OF MALI

One of the most widely travelled scholars of his time was a North African Berber, Ibn Battuta. Between 1325 and 1349 he journeyed throughout the Middle East and to India and Ceylon--even as far as Peking! In 1352 he left Tangiers and crossed the Sahara to visit Mali, the only part of the Muslim world which he had not yet seen. En route he stopped at Taghaza in the Sahara and at Walata, a dependency of Mali. He eventually spent almost a year in the capital of Mali itself. He described his reactions as follows:

On certain days...

Roland and Caroline Oliver, ed., Africa in the Days of Exploration. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965. pp. 16-19.

...dogs, and asses.

TIMBUCTU AND KANEM-BORNU

Leo Africanus was born in Granada, Spain about 1495, but soon moved with his parents to Fez in northern Africa. In 1513 he accompanied his uncle on a mission across the Sahara where they visited fifteen Sudanic states, among them Timbuctu and Kanem-Bornu.

The Kingdom of Timbuktu

Nowadays all the...

Adapted from Fred Burke, ed., Africa: Selected Readings. New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1969. pp. 137-183.

and

Margaret Shinnie, Ancient African Kingdoms. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1965. p. 61.

...kingdom of Persia....

The Kingdom of Bornu

Bornu lies to...

A. R. Allen, Leo's Travels in the Sudan. London: Oxford University Press, 1962. pp. 21-22.

...only one month.

Others also visited Bornu. One Arab writer, El-Muhallabi, wrote in 985 A.D. that the people of Kanem-Bornu:

Exalt and worship...

Margaret Shinnie, Ancient African Kingdoms. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1965. p. 61.

...sickness and health.

Benin was a very famous forest kingdom that achieved importance after Europeans began to trade with it. A Dutch geographer and a Portuguese sailor wrote about it in the 1600's and in 1550 respectively.

He is a...

F. Seth Singleton and John Shingler, Africa In Perspective. New York: Hayden Book Company, Inc., 1967. p. 37.

...the royal presence....

There is in...

Thomas Hodgkin, Nigerian Perspectives. London: Oxford University Press, 1960. p. 101.

...all the people.

AN AFRICAN ENCOUNTER

Buzurg Ibn Shahriyar was a sailor who visited the coastal regions of Somalia and Kenya in the 900's A.D. About 950 A.D. he wrote a collection of sailors' tales--many of them legendary; in one of them he recounts an adventure of one Ismailawaih who was a member of the crew of a ship which stopped near Sofala in 922 to trade with the local inhabitants. When the ship prepared to leave, the local king went on board to say goodbye. As the ship weighed anchor:

You are off,...

G. S. P. Freeman-Grenville, ed., The East African Coast. London: Oxford University Press, 1962. pp. 10-11.

...that we parted.

EAST AFRICA AND CHINA

The Chinese prized ivory very much. It is not surprising, therefore, that they began to trade very early with East Africa. J. J. L. Duyvendak, the leading Dutch expert on China until his death in 1954, investigated this trade extensively. In 1949 he wrote:

There is a...

J. J. L. Duyvendak, China's Discovery of Africa.
London: Arthur Probsthain, Ltd., 1949. pp. 13 & 32.

...present another sample.

KILWA

Ibn Battuta also travelled down the East African coast. He made his journey in 1331. Among the Zanj towns he visited were Zeila, Mogadishu, Mombasa and Kilwa. His writings are the only known description of these city states during this period. Of Zeila he wrote:

It is the...

G. S. P. Freeman-Grenville, ed., The East African Coast. London: Oxford University Press, 1962.
pp. 27-32.

...and other countries.

UNIT III

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE

PART I

The idea of slavery is not new. Neither is it the invention of any one single people or nation. On the contrary, it is a human creation. It has existed for many centuries. Its origins lie deep in man's past. Every group, community or society that ever existed has had to defend itself from attacks by outsiders or deal with individuals within its own group whose actions seriously endangered the peace, freedom or security of the group as a whole. Wars often involved the taking of prisoners; enforcement of community rules often resulted in the conviction of law-breakers; family or community feuds often ended with certain members being deprived of their membership in the group. What to do with these people--with prisoners-of-war, criminals and social outcasts--is a problem that has faced every human group.

There have always been a number of possible solutions to this dilemma. One way prisoners and criminals could be dealt with was to put them to death. For many years, and in some instances even today, this was a common practice. Another way they could be dealt with was by banishing them from the community. Of course, yet another was merely to allow them to go free as if nothing had happened. Or, they could be imprisoned to be fed and clothed at the group's expense. Each of these alternatives has special advantages. So, too, does each have its own disadvantages.

The Slave System

Yet, for many groups throughout history slavery has been the accepted way of dealing with law breakers, social outcasts and prisoners-of-war. Moreover, it has served other purposes. Slavery has provided a way to meet some of the needs of those who were members in good standing of the group or community. For many, possession of slaves was an indication of social rank and prestige; for others it provided a way to secure political followers and thus political influence; for still others, slaves provided the personal comforts they sought; and for some, ownership of slaves symbolized wealth just as did the ownership of great landed estates or herds of cattle or fleets of ships. Slavery was--in its origins--every bit as much a social and political system as it was a way of harnessing human labor to produce wealth.

As an institution (a systematic or established way of doing something) slavery has varied widely in practice and form. Yet, its real meaning has remained almost unchanged through the centuries. It was always a system whereby one human being--his person and his services--was under the mastery or control of another human being. It was an arrangement whereby a person was similar to a horse or a hoe--a slave was a piece of property that belonged to some human being to serve him in any way he, the owner, wished.

All systems of slavery, moreover, have followed certain standard practices which were enforced by law or custom or a mixture of both. These were intended to regulate the conduct of slave-owners as well as of slaves. They often regulated whatever privileges were reserved to slaves as well as the ways in which they were to be treated by their owners. For example, in some societies slaves were allowed to marry, own property, inherit a master's property and even own slaves themselves; all of these rights were strictly observed. Many societies also had rules prohibiting the physical mistreatment of slaves as well as setting the types of work they could be required to perform. At the same time, the conduct of the slaves themselves was strictly regulated.

Not only were conditions of slavery and ways of becoming enslaved usually well-defined in most societies, but so, too, were methods of acquiring, exchanging and transferring slaves. In many places slaves could legally be acquired only by capture in war, gift, trade or purchase. The acquisition or exchange of slaves, in fact, played an important part in the business activities of many cities. In ancient, medieval and modern times, both in the eastern and western worlds, cities and towns often maintained special markets for this purpose. Indeed, trade in human beings was a part of virtually all slavery systems that have ever existed.

The great empires of the ancient world all permitted slavery-- Persia, Babylonia and Egypt included. The Chinese, the Indians--even the Aztecs and Mayas--found it useful. Even in ancient Greece--the "cradle of democracy"--slavery was an accepted, indeed a very important practice. It flourished in all corners of the great Roman empire and in Rome itself. The feudal system of medieval Europe was a form of slavery; the city-states of Renaissance Venice and Genoa were once punished by the Pope for permitting the sale of Christian slaves instead of restricting this commerce to non-Christians!

So, too, was there slavery in Africa. In fact, it probably started earlier and lasted longer in this continent than in any other region of the world. It was not a plantation type of slavery such as that which grew up in the pre-Civil War United States. Although it existed throughout all of Africa, only a relatively few people were slaves; for, in spite of the numerous kingdoms and tribes that inhabited the more hospitable parts of the lands lying south of the Sahara, wars and other intergroup conflicts were few and far between. What slaves there were served primarily as household servants; most were considered as a part of the slave-owner's family; many married and rose to positions of importance in the owner's family; some even became wealthy and powerful in their own right. Slavery, under these circumstances, was not considered by the inhabitants of this region as unusual or wrong. Neither was the trade or system that supplied these slaves considered bad.

The Atlantic Slave Trade

In the middle of the fifteenth century, however, all this began to change. The movement, in increasing numbers, of Arab trading expeditions southward along the eastern coast and into the interior around the Lakes country and the arrival on the western coast of European trading vessels added a new dimension to this institution--for now Africans themselves became a major article of trade.

Negroes had been sold in the slave markets of ancient Egypt and in those of the Barbary coast long before the beginning of the Christian era. The Moslem invasion across the sands of the Sahara increased the volume of this trade, too. But it was not until the arrival of the Arabs in the east and the Europeans--and later the Americans--in the west that trade in slaves began to overshadow trade in all other items. It was not long before the African slave trade came to be the dominant feature of African contact with the outside world--it continued to be so for at least the next four centuries.

In the early 1440's the Portuguese launched the series of coastal explorations that were eventually to lead to the rounding of the African continent and the discovery of the long-sought all-water route to India. In the course of these efforts numerous Portuguese vessels returned to their home ports laden with cargoes of ivory, leather, gold, pepper and other valued goods. In 1441 one such ship also returned with a dozen Africans aboard. With the sale of these captives the European phase of the slave trade began. Although the Portuguese were concerned more with trade in ivory, gold and pepper, slaves gradually became an important item of their commerce--so much so, in fact, that within fifty years Africans outnumbered the native inhabitants of several provinces in southern Portugal. Yet, the Portuguese for many years remained more interested in exploring the coast and securing trade in goods other than people.

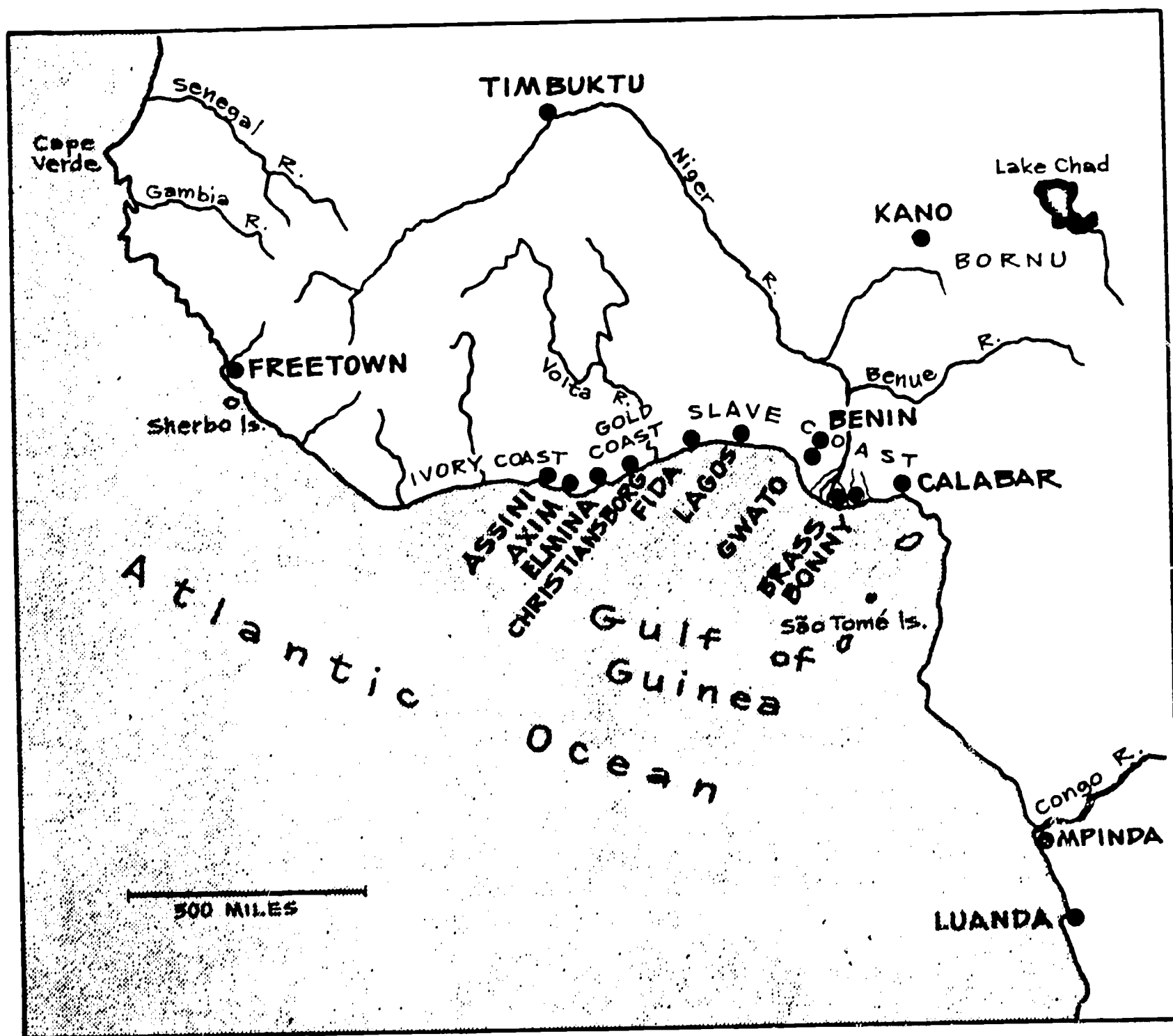
The discovery of the Americas and the need for labor to work its mines and plantations stimulated the trade in human beings, however. American Indians enslaved for this purpose proved unwilling laborers and soon began to die in large numbers. Indentured labor (people who sold their services for a specified number of years, usually seven, in order to pay for their passage to the New World) was insufficient to meet the demand. White slaves purchased by Spaniards from markets in Spain and North Africa were in inadequate supply. So, by 1515 Spanish colonies in the Caribbean were receiving shipload after shipload of Africans--at first by way of Spain and Portugal but within a few years directly from the coasts of Africa. The Atlantic slave trade had begun.

At first this trade remained a monopoly of the European kings. Portuguese and Spanish kings levied a tax on all slaves imported into their colonies. The Spanish, moreover, even sold licenses to private

shippers to engage in this trade; for them the slave trade was an important source of revenue. So profitable was this trade that by the mid-1600's vessels of other European nations gradually became involved. Both Queen Elizabeth of England and the French kings invested heavily in this trade; the planting of colonies along the Atlantic and gulf coasts of North America and the subsequent European demand for sugar, tobacco and other plantation products created added demands for slave labor. It was not long thereafter before American, as well as Danish, Dutch, Swedish and Prussian ships began to engage in this trade. The triangle trade of the eighteenth century--the shipping of rum and cheap cotton goods to Africa where they were bartered for slaves which were, in turn, sold in the West Indies and the thirteen colonies and replaced by shiploads of local products--was built on this trade in human beings. By that time it had ceased being under royal control and was open to any vessel of any nation that could survive the hazards of the voyage.

By the 1640's this trade had become concentrated in two areas along the western coast--one fronting on the Gulf of Guinea and the other in the region known today as Angola. Although the Portuguese retained almost complete control over the latter region, they were forced out of the former by the Dutch who dominated the trans-Atlantic slave trade during most of the 1600's. Thereafter the British assumed a position of leadership although Portuguese, Dutch, French and American vessels were most active in the years after 1808. It is estimated that throughout the entire period of this trade British and Portuguese ships each transported about 1/3 of all Africans brought across the Atlantic while the Dutch carried 18%, the French 12% and the Americans 5%.

In the early years of this trade, European companies built forts and trading posts at strategic places along the African coast especially in the regions known as the Gold Coast and the Slave Coast. One of the first of these--Sao Jorge da Mina (Elmina)--was started by the Portuguese in 1482 just east of the mouth of the River Pra in present-day Ghana. Within fifty years the entire Guinea coast from Assini to Calabar was dotted with European outposts. At first these served merely as symbols of European interest for slaves were easily secured by raids on coastal villages; as time passed, however, they became the centers of this trade for it was to them that African chiefs, agents and traders marched procession after procession of slaves (called coffles) received from inland sources; and it was in



West Africa During the Slave Trade

or near them that these slaves were penned awaiting purchase and shipment across the Atlantic. Once on board a slave ship they were often crammed into the hold shoulder to shoulder, row upon row; so bad were the conditions of the voyage to the New World that it is estimated that at least 10-20% of all slaves purchased in Africa died before they reached the New World markets. Suffocation, fear, starvation and suicide accounted for most of this loss; however, occasionally shipboard epidemics of measles, small pox and other communicable diseases reduced the number of slaves by as much as 50%.

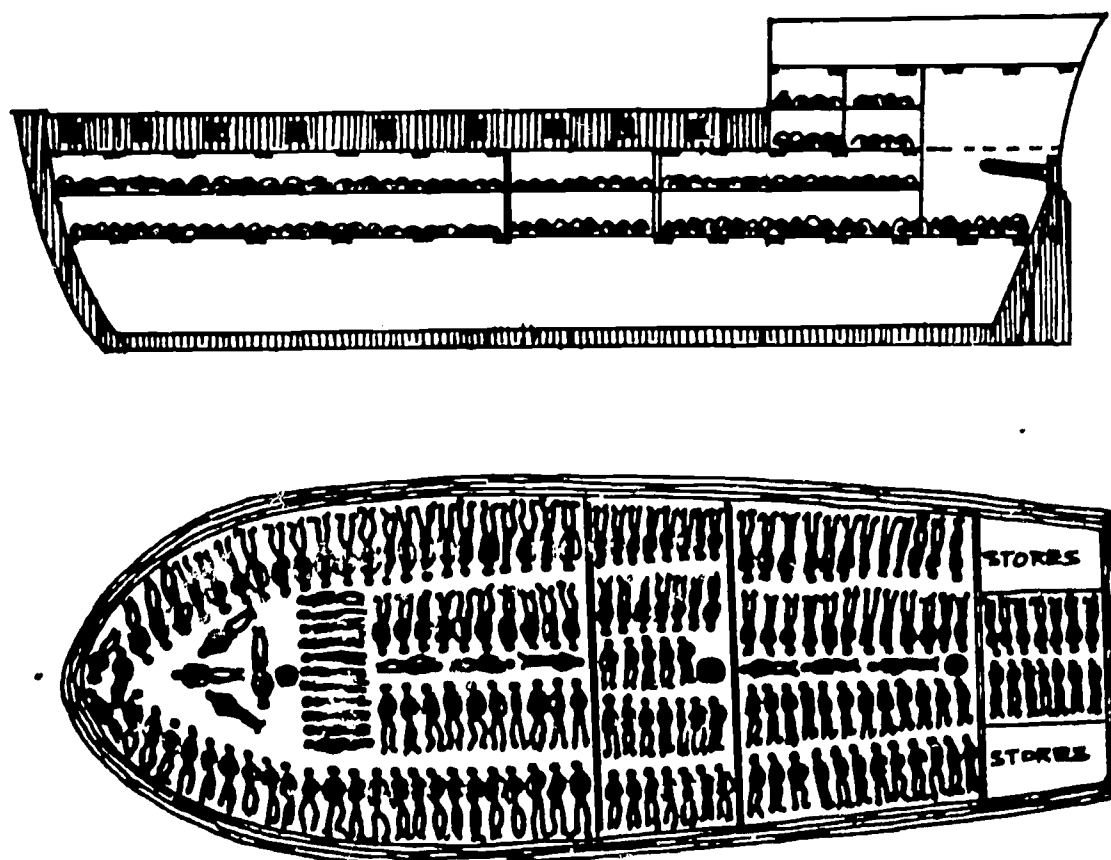


Diagram for most efficient way to load a slave ship
(after a drawing made in 1791)

There are no accurate figures for the total number of Africans carried into slavery across the Atlantic. Estimates range from a low of 4,000,000 to a high of 25,000,000 for the more than 400 years this trade was in progress. One authority suggests that an additional 20,000,000 died en route or as a result of the slaving expeditions in Africa itself, thus raising the total population loss to over 45,000,000 for this entire period. And this at a time when the total population of Africa south of the Sahara was considerably smaller than its present size of over 200,000,000.

Abolition of the Atlantic Slave Trade

The trans-Atlantic slave trade was generally viewed as a commercial activity. But, almost from the moment it started, there arose isolated voices condemning it as brutal, immoral, unchristian and inhumane. These protests reached huge proportions in England late in the eighteenth century. Stimulated by the activities of Quakers and other religious groups, by beliefs in freedom, equality and the goodness of man, and a belief that government should keep its hands off the economic activities of its citizens, the British government in 1807 made it illegal for British subjects or ships to engage in the slave trade. Other nations soon followed suit.

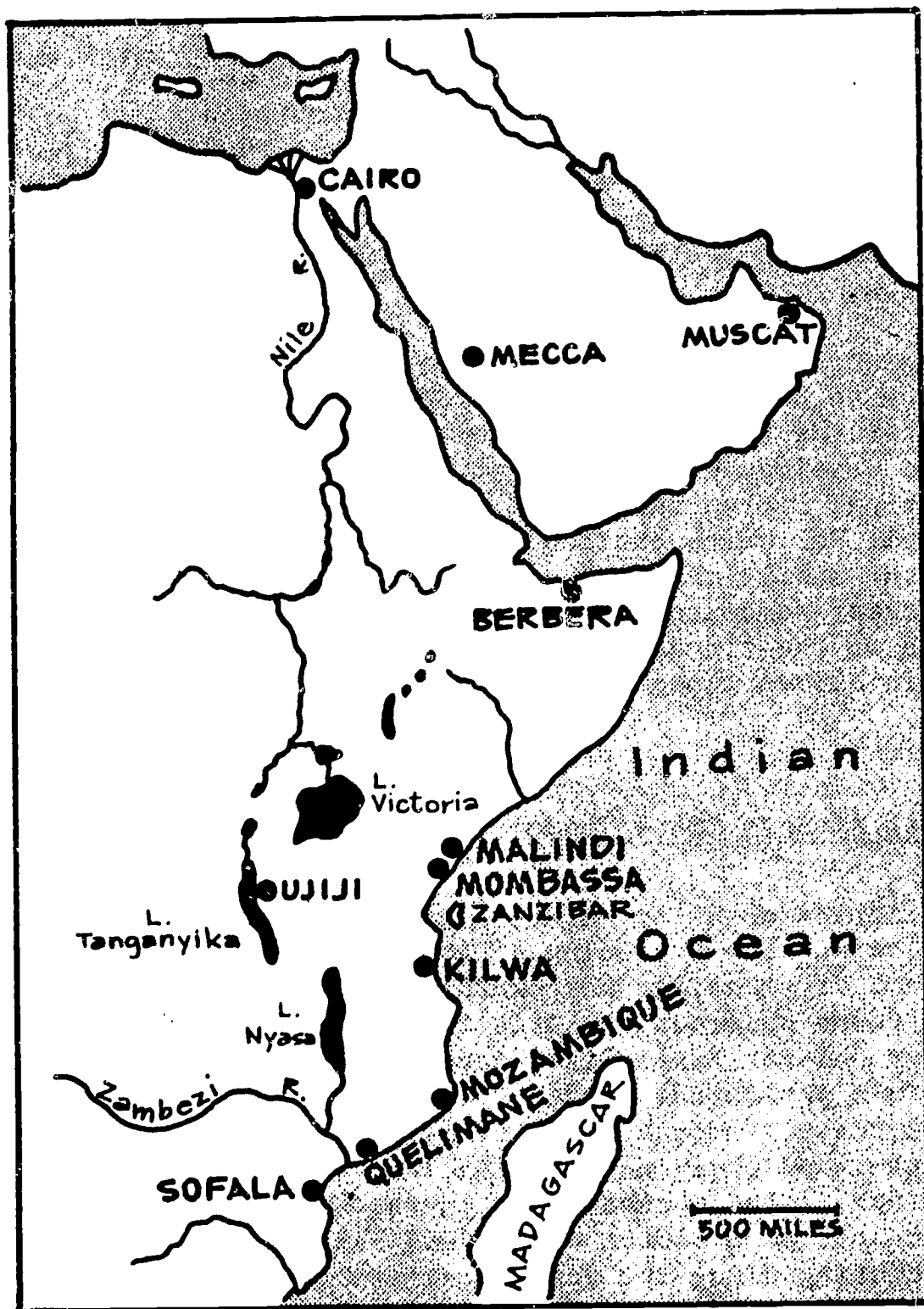
Yet this trade did not stop completely. The invention of the cotton gin increased the demand for cotton and thus for labor to work in the fields; the resultant rise in the prices of slaves encouraged many ship captains to engage in this trade in spite of the fact that it was now illegal. Enforcement of the laws prohibiting this trade were haphazard, to say the least; but, eventually British naval vessels began to patrol the African coast and the high seas in order to intercept and confiscate slave ships.

By the 1840's Britain was bringing diplomatic and economic pressure on African kings to force them to abolish the slave trade in their own lands. Twenty-five years later the trade had been reduced almost to a trickle, due primarily to the development of steam-powered, iron-clad warships armed with rapid firing, rifled cannon and to the victory of the North in the American Civil War which abolished slavery altogether in the United States. With the abolition of slavery by the King of Brazil in the 1880's, the largest remaining market for slaves disappeared and this trans-Atlantic phase of the slave trade came to an end. All that then remained was the trade in slaves along the east coast of Africa.

The East African Slave Trade

The slave trade in East Africa actually had been going on for more than five-hundred years before the beginning of the Atlantic slave trade. When Vasco daGama first sailed northward along the east Africa coast around 1500, he found numerous ports filled with ships from nations of the Near and Far East alike, governed by wealthy rulers, and engaged in a prosperous trade of which a small part was in slaves. The Portuguese, through force of arms, soon conquered or destroyed these cities and their neighboring lands. As European competitors forced them out of the Guinea coast in the West they, in turn, began to rely on the East as a source of slaves. It was not long before Portuguese slavers operating along the entire eastern coastline and especially in Mozambique had started a steady flow of Africans westward to the plantations of Brazil and eastward to Asia and the Indies.

This trade did not end with the rise of the abolition movement in Europe. On the contrary, it merely quickened and increased in volume in order to pick up the slack caused by the decline in the West African trade. By the nineteenth century, the Portuguese were confined largely to



Mozambique and the center of the East African slave trade had shifted to Zanzibar, an island off the coast of Tanzania which was ruled by the Iman of the Arabian state of Muscat. Arabs had, in fact, replaced the Portuguese as the dominant force in the slave trade throughout the region.

Unlike the slave trade in West Africa, the Arab dominated trade in nineteenth century East Africa frequently involved another item--elephant ivory. This commodity was valued highly, during this period, for use as billiard balls, piano keys and ornaments; yet getting it from the interior of Africa to the seacoast often presented very difficult problems in transportation. Thus, beginning shortly after 1800, Arab traders regularly organized

East Africa During the Slave Trade

aggressive ivory and slave-hunting expeditions which probed hundreds of miles into the interior killing elephants and enslaving Africans to carry the tusks down to the coasts where both ivory and Africans were sold! As a result, the once populous East African highlands and almost the entire east coast was a virtual wasteland. In spite of the efforts of the British and other nations, it was not until early in the twentieth century that the last vestiges of this trade were removed. Moreover, it was not until 1926 that slavery was even abolished in Ethiopia! A recent UNESCO report, in fact, suggests that in some parts of the Middle East slavery is still practiced.

For many Africans the slave trade occasioned their first and only contact with non-Africans. It existed in most areas south of the Sahara for at least four centuries and for more than nine in the East. During this time much changed. Virtually all Africans were in some way or other affected by it. Much of what Africa is today is a legacy from this period. Yet, opinions differ regarding the most significant aspects of the impact of the slave trade in Africa. One view holds that:

(A)

The slave trade was, in the final analysis, a liberating process. Slavery had always existed in Africa. Life there before 1500 was not easy; inter-tribal wars, disease and natural disasters made existence difficult. The slave trade rescued many Africans from a most primitive way of life and gave them, once they arrived in their new lands, greater opportunities to advance than they would have had by remaining in Africa. In addition, the slave trade introduced into Africa new tools, cloth, food crops and other items which helped improve the African way of life. Many Africans became wealthy as a result of this trade; new African empires such as Oyo, Ashanti and Dahomey were given life; trade in ivory, leather and gold was stimulated. And above all, the slave trade opened Africa to the Western world. As a result, money and missionaries began to pour into the region to Christianize and civilize the natives. It was this trade, moreover, which introduced the benefits of western education and medicine to an otherwise "Dark Continent."

Another, however, looks on the period of the slave trade as a time of ruthless exploitation and destruction of a society that had existed longer and, upon occasion, had advanced further than many foreign societies:

(B)

The African slave trade was one of the most cruel crimes ever committed against any people. Although slavery had long existed in Africa, it was not nearly as cruel, harsh and inhumane as the kind of slavery practiced in the Americas. The slave trade virtually destroyed Africa. It bled dry many sections of the land south of the Sahara by taking away its most important resource--human labor. It introduced elements

of foreign economic and political control oriented to interests outside Africa. The cheap manufactured goods that were exchanged for slaves were not at all useful in producing more wealth--as money is when exchanged for machinery; instead, these products merely made Africans even more dependent on the outside world and, in fact, soon put local African craftsmen out of business because they could not meet such competition. The rum, guns and other goods introduced by this slave trade wreaked havoc on the social and political fabric of African society as well as on its economy. It set empire against empire, tribe against tribe and brother against brother. It lay waste half a continent; it stimulated a hatred and fear that has not yet disappeared.

Certainly the slave trade did have great impact on Africa south of the Sahara, but the precise nature of this impact is, as yet, unclear. The data which follows, however, may provide information which will be useful in helping to determine the significance of this period in shaping present-day Africa south of the Sahara.

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE

PART II

THE SLAVE TRADE IN WEST AFRICA

In 1067 A.D., Al-Bakri, an Arab geographer, published a description of northern Africa and of the lands lying south of the great Sahara Desert. The town of Zuwila, which he mentions below, was situated just to the east of modern-day Murzug in the western Sahara. It is still a somewhat prosperous oasis.

One day's journey...

Thomas Hodgkin, Nigerian Perspectives. London:
Oxford University Press, 1960. p. 67.

...to neighbouring countries.

II

The Kano Chronicle is a record of the significant events that occurred in Hausaland. The following selection describes a ruler who lived in the 12th or 13th century:

The thirteenth (king)...

Thomas Hodgkin, Nigerian Perspectives. London:
Oxford University Press, 1960. p. 79.

...been so heavy....

III

The following observations were made by a British explorer, Mungo Park, while exploring the upper reaches of the Niger River during 1796-1797.

The slaves in...

Ronald Miller, ed., Mungo Park's Travels in The Interior of Africa. London: J. M. Dent and Sons, Ltd., 1907. pp. 220-222, 226-228, and 244.

...with great terror....

IV

In the early 1500's the African kingdom of the Kongo attempted to establish close political and commercial ties with Portugal. Just a decade earlier, Portuguese priests, craftsmen and soldiers had entered its lands and its king had been converted to Christianity. In the years that followed, however, most of the Portuguese who remained there became increasingly involved in activities such as slaving which did not please the manikongo, Dom Alfonso. In October 1526, he (in a letter dictated to one of his Portuguese advisors) requested the King of Portugal to use his power to stop such activities.

Moreover, Sir, in...

Basil Davidson, The African Past. New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1967. pp. 192-193.

...the aforementioned goods....

V

William Bosman was the agent in charge of a Dutch West India Company trading post on the Guinea coast in the late 1600's. In 1700 he wrote an account describing the region; in this account, he made the following observations:

...if there happen...

Basil Davidson, The African Past. New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1967. p. 219.

...as their booty....

Those who come...

Basil Davidson, Black Mother: The Years of the African Slave Trade. New York: Little, Brown and Company, 1961. p. 19.

...their eyes only....

VI

Olaudah Equiano was an Ibo. He was born in 1745 and raised in what is today eastern Nigeria. At the age of ten he was kidnapped into slavery. After serving a number of African masters, he was sent to the West Indies; from there he soon was sent to England where he purchased his freedom. During the years that followed, he wrote an account of his life and travels.

That part of...

Thomas Hodgkin, Nigerian Perspectives. London: Oxford University Press, 1960. pp. 155-156 and pp. 160-163.

...their own use....

My father, besides...

Philip D. Curtin, Africa Remembered. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1967. pp. 84-86 and pp. 89-91.

...the West Indies.)

VII

A surgeon on a British slave ship once recorded the following observations in his journal.

Sestro, Dec. 29th. 1724...

Daniel P. Mannix, Black Cargoes. New York: The Viking Press, 1962. p. 97.

...proceed lower down.

VIII

In 1789, a Swedish traveller and scientist, C. B. Wadstrom, testified before a committee of the British Privy Council about the impact of the slave trade in West Africa. He had just returned from an extensive trip to that region. Part of his testimony follows:

The wars which...

Basil Davidson, The African Past. New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1967. pp. 231-232.

...be sent in....

IX

John Adams, an American, captained a vessel that engaged in considerable trade with Africans on the slave coast between 1786 and 1800. In the course of his trading he came into contact with many Africans who had become wealthy in the slave trade.

Some of the...

Thomas Hodgkin, Nigerian Perspectives. London:
Oxford University Press, 1960. pp. 180-181.

...fast as possible....

THE SLAVE TRADE IN EAST AFRICA

X

Early in the 19th century, W. F. W. Owen, a Captain in the British Navy, conducted a series of surveys of the African continent. He recorded and later published his observations about what he saw during 1821-1826 along the East African coast.

Quilimane (on the...

Basil Davidson, The African Past. New York: Grosset
and Dunlap, 1967. p. 306.

...their own consumption....

XI

David Livingstone was a Scotchman whose missionary activities and exploring zeal took him throughout much of southern and eastern Africa during the mid-1800's. Most of his observations were forcefully recorded in his journals. He was particularly alert, on occasion, to anything relating to slavery and the slave trade:

We were informed...

J. W. Russell, General Rigby, Zanzibar and the Slave Trade. London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1935.
p. 127.

...trade of hell....

No words can...

David and Charles Livingston, Narrative of An Expedition to the Zambesi. New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1866. p. 481.

...to do so.

XII

Richard Burton, a British adventurer, travelled throughout East Africa during the years 1857-1859. His observations below were based on these travels.

The origin of...

Richard Burton, First Footsteps In East Africa. London: Longmans, 1856. pp. 514-515.

...another man's property.

....Slaves...are...frequently...

Richard Burton, First Footsteps In East Africa. London: Longmans, 1856. p. 516.

...progress and prosperity....

XIII

Certain aspects of slavery in East Africa were described by Reginald Coupland, an Englishman, in his book The Exploitation of East Africa, 1856-1890.

A supply of...

Reginald Coupland, The Exploitation of East Africa. London: Faber and Faber, Ltd., 1939. pp. 136, 137 and 139.

...beside the track....

XIV

In 1807 Great Britain made it illegal for her subjects to engage in the slave trade. In the years that followed diplomatic pressure and naval force were employed with only partial success to end the African slave trade altogether. One reason for this lack of success is illustrated by the reaction of King Pepple of Bonny and his advisors to a British request in 1839 to abolish the slave trade. The following is from the official records of the British navy.

Captain Craigie then...

Thomas Hodgkin, Nigerian Perspectives. London:
Oxford University Press, 1960. pp. 237-238.

...4,000 dollars yearly....

XV

A little more than a decade ago, an elderly Hausa woman, Baba told her life's story to Mrs. M. F. Smith who later translated and published it. Baba lived in Karo, a small village in north central Nigeria. Born in 1877, she died in 1951. The excerpts below refer to the 1890's and are from Mrs. Smith's book, Baba of Karo. Baba is describing the life of the 130 slaves owned by her father.

When the children...

Thomas Hodgkin, Nigerian Perspectives. London:
Oxford University Press, 1960. pp. 318-319.

...girls went, too....

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE

PART III

Results of the Slave Trade

A trade in slaves has existed in Africa south of the Sahara ever since the beginning of recorded history. In some places, it still continues although on a much lesser scale than it once did. During the four-hundred years after 1441, however, it was a trade of massive proportions, and as such had great impact on the peoples of Africa and the course of their future development.

Basil Davidson, a journalist, student of African history and author of many books on Africa, has summarized some of these results as follows:

....Many millions of...

Basil Davidson, History of West Africa. Garden City:
Doubleday and Company, 1966. pp. 293-295.

...for European conquests.

Many other scholars have also attempted to describe and analyse the impact of this trade on Africa. Peter Duignan and Clarence Clendenen, in a 1965 book entitled, The United States and the African Slave Trade: 1619-1862, approached it in this way.

But the trade...

Peter Duignan and Clarence Clendenen, The United States and The African Slave Trade: 1619-1862.
Stanford: The Hoover Institution, 1963.
pp. 55-58.

...involvement with Africa.

The African slave trade is thus viewed in a variety of ways. There is no question that it greatly affected Africa and its peoples. Whether these effects were good or bad is yet another question.

UNIT IV

AFRICA UNDER EUROPEAN RULE

THE PARTITION OF AFRICA

When Henry Stanley reached the Atlantic at the end of his first journey down the great Congo River in 1877, the land and peoples of Africa south of the Sahara were still quite free from foreign influence or control. The vast majority of Africans had never seen a European or, for that matter, even an Arab. Most knew nothing at all about the outside world. Only a tiny fraction of their land was under the influence or direct control of foreign nations.

Whatever footholds foreigners had established in Africa, in fact, were scattered and most precarious. The French, in 1877, controlled little more than the region of the Senegal. Britain held a small number of forts, trading posts and settlements in Gambia, Sierra Leone and around Lagos. Portuguese influence--but not control--was strong in Guinea; its presence in Angola and Mozambique was limited only to a few, isolated, coastal settlements. Arab sultans controlled Zanzibar and a number of cities and outposts along the eastern coastline. Only at the southernmost tip of the continent were foreigners firmly entrenched--the British in control of a growing Cape Colony and the Boer trekkers (descendents of Dutch farmers who had settled at the Cape in the seventeenth century) moving ever northward from the Cape establishing farms and towns as they went.

Within a generation, however, all this changed. By the outbreak in 1914 of World War I the African continent had been carved up into over fifty separate colonies. European nations, content since 1441 with a coastal trade in gold, slaves, palm oil and other exotic goods, suddenly claimed control over and even occupied almost all of this enormous land. Only Liberia and Ethiopia remained free.

The Partition of Africa

Africa did not fall to Europe as a result of military defeat. Nor was possession of its land given in return for money. It was, instead, taken in most subtle fashion by scores of European government officials, commercial agents, individual traders, military men and even settlers. In less than one generation, about 30 years, this continent changed from a land of free African states and kingdoms to one of colonies and imperial holdings under the control of European powers.

Africa's seizure by Europe happened so quickly that it appeared to be accidental--and spontaneous. But this was not the case. Four centuries of the African slave trade has paved the way. This trade alerted Europeans to the existence in the interior of valuable forest and mineral resources. It also weakened and even destroyed the African kingdoms and states which controlled access to these resources. Europe's seizure of Africa was further stimulated by the activities of missionaries, industrialists and explorers who had become increasingly interested in Africa -- especially that part of it south of the Sahara -- after 1800.

Many European and even American missionaries had gone there, before that date. By the mid-1800's, however, wave upon wave of earnest young men and women, were descending on black Africa anxious to end the barbarism of the slave trade. They were even more anxious to spread the blessings of Christianity, the alphabet and medicine among the heathen, supposedly ignorant, and diseased African population. It was their duty, these missionaries felt, to bring the benefits of western civilization to Africa; they were carrying out the responsibilities of their nations to, as Rudyard Kipling wrote:

Take up the...

Louis L. Snyder, The Imperialism Reader.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand & Company,
Inc., 1962. p. 87.

...and half-child.

The movement to Christianize Africa went almost hand in hand with the ambition to open new markets there for European goods and to exploit the continent's valuable resources. African desire for European products--knives, guns, cooking utensils, cloth--had been stimulated by the slave trade. The potential market for these was expanded as missionaries and explorers penetrated the interior. Europe and even the United States had also developed a need for certain African products--such as palm oil (for making soap), ivory, mahogany and rubber. By the end of the nineteenth century the discovery of gold, copper and diamonds made these lands even more attractive.

Even before explorers like Barth, Speke, Burton and Livingston embarked on their adventures, large companies had been chartered by European governments to open Africa to trade. Their representatives as well as other government agents and men ambitious to build private empires roamed the interior trying to persuade local chiefs to place themselves and their lands under their protection. The actions of an Englishman, Sir Harry Johnston, were somewhat typical of these efforts:

He came, he...

T. Walter Wallbank, Documents On Modern Africa.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc.,
1964. p. 13.

...made his addieux....

Like Johnston, many treaty-makers travelled with a plentiful supply of blank treaties ready to be filled in and signed whenever the opportunity arose. These documents were very broad and quite vague. The treaties issued by the Royal Niger Company to its agents in West Africa, for example, read in part:

We the undersigned...

Louis L. Snyder, The Imperialism Reader. Princeton:
D. Van Nostrand and Company, Inc., 1962. pp. 61-62.

...of our country....

This, as did most other treaties, contained additional clauses requiring the company to observe all local laws and customs and to pay African owners a "reasonable" sum for any land they might wish to take. The African chiefs, usually illiterate and having a different concept of property rights than Europeans, were often unaware of the real meaning of treaties like this that they were signing.

As competition for control of African lands began to increase in the 1870's local wars broke out between various African peoples and between them and certain European countries. Missionaries, merchants and trading companies began to secure military protection from their respective governments and this protection eventually led to outright occupation and in some instances even to annexation (being incorporated into their own territory) by the European power.

All of these events and activities combined to set the stage for Europe's seizure of Africa. But it was Henry Stanley's historic expedition in 1877 that triggered the final scramble for this continent.

King Leopold II of tiny Belgium was very impressed by Stanley's persuasive description of the apparent great wealth of the Congo basin just waiting to be tapped by some enterprising nation or people. So he hired Stanley to make treaties with local Congo chiefs, treaties that would place their lands under his control. Leopold's interest was purely personal. Stanley's numerous treaty-making expeditions after 1877 were not government-sponsored at all. Leopold was merely out to create a private empire for his own personal gain.

Other European nations and leaders, however, were in no mood to stand by and watch while one man gobbled-up the world's last bit of unclaimed, and perhaps extremely rich, land. Germany, which had become a unified independent

nation only in 1871, was the first to move. Her leaders believed that ownership of foreign colonies would make Germany a respected and powerful nation, so they quickly decided to take land elsewhere on the continent. These actions disturbed Britain and France, so they, too, indicated their intentions of taking formal possession of some of the African lands where their citizens had been active as missionaries, merchants or explorers.

This inter-nation competition created serious dangers for the countries involved. All of Europe was then competing for military power and international prestige. Many leaders felt that no rival nation could secure any potentially rich colony without upsetting the delicate balance of power that then existed among them. Clearly, some set of rules for dealing with this African situation was needed if a general European war were to be avoided.

The opportunity came when Leopold called a meeting of the world's leading nations to approve his acquisition of the Congo. From December 1884 to February 1885 representatives of fourteen nations (including Russia, the United States, and the countries of Europe) met in Berlin. The resulting Act of Berlin was a lengthy document, but Article XXXIV summed up the intent of the meeting:

Any power which...

T. Walter Wallbank, Documents on Modern Africa.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1964.
p. 17.

...shall acquire them....

In other words, Africa was for the taking, and Africans had not even been consulted!

Britain had a headstart in the scramble to get land that followed the signing of this document. From South Africa, Cecil Rhodes and his British South Africa Company pushed north into Bechuanaland, the Rhodesias and the area around Lake Nyasa (now Malawi). From Egypt (occupied in 1882) the British moved south into the Sudan, fighting a series of brief but bloody wars before the area was finally theirs. In East Africa, Kenya and Uganda were welded into colonies with the British-constructed Uganda Railway as the connecting link. Nigeria was subdued by the clever diplomacy of Lord Lugard who was successful in bringing the Hausa and Fulani peoples of the north and the Yoruba of the south under British rule. The Gold Coast (now Ghana) was made a British colony only after the powerful Ashanti peoples had been subdued by British rifles.

Whereas the British hoped to build an uninterrupted string of colonies from north to south--a plan best expressed by Rhodes' dream of a railroad running non-stop from the Cape to Cairo, the French were determined to establish control over all the land between Senegal on the Atlantic coast and Ojibuti (now the French protectorate of the Afars and Issas) on the Red Sea. The French were thwarted in their plan, however, for when armies of these two powers faced each other at Fashoda in the Sudan in 1898 they withdrew without any fighting. As a result, the British were able to gain control of the Sudan while France turned its attention to strengthening its hold on its colonies in the Sahara and West Africa.

Other European nations also took part in this scramble for colonies. Germany laid claim to four separate territories--South-West Africa, Togo, Kameroun and, in East Africa, Tanganyika. The Italians, latecomers to the race, took Eritrea and part of Somalia. However, their ambitions to add the Abyssinian (Ethiopia) highlands to their largely desert empire were rudely shattered in 1896 when an Ethiopian army under Emperor Menelik soundly defeated an Italian army at Adowa. As the twentieth century opened just fifteen years after the meeting at Berlin, the map of Africa had been completely redrawn.

Africa Under Foreign Rule

Once European nations decided among themselves who was to own which land, the next task was to administer the new colonies. This, as it turned out, was a much more difficult task than merely deciding how Africa should be carved up. In fact, it involved doing two different but closely related activities at the same time. And, it took much longer to accomplish these than to partition the continent.

First, European nations had to convince the Africans to give in to the decisions made at Berlin and to the partitioning that followed. This required, on occasion, the use or threat of use of armed force. Generally, however, it took only some persuasion in the form perhaps of a payment to a local chief or the signing of a treaty with him by a government agent, German, Carl Peters. In most instances, the agreements thus made were very broad, such as the one signed between Lo Bengula, Chief of the Matabele, and agents of Cecil Rhodes in 1888:

Know all men...

Louis L. Snyder, The Imperialism Reader.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand and Company,
Inc., 1962. pp. 218-219.

...consent and concurrence....

As with earlier treaties, the Africans did not always understand exactly what they were signing; when Lo Bengula discovered what he had agreed to he complained--to no avail--to Queen Victoria:

Some time ago...

Louis L. Snyder, The Imperialism Reader.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand and Company,
Inc., 1962. p. 220.

...about this thing.

Such complaints were frequent during the years between 1885 and 1914.

At the same time European nations were establishing their "rights" to various African lands, they also were moving to occupy and control these lands. Government officials arrived to collect taxes, administer European laws, protect their missionaries and other nationals there and prevent other European nations from encroaching. Traders came to open up trading posts or to organize ways to secure various mineral resources and forest products. Commercial agents also undertook to establish plantations for producing cocoa, palm oil, coconuts, tea and coffee. Eventually even settlers went to establish new homes and farms in the more hospitable parts of the continent.

This took a long time. Although Africa had been partitioned into colonies by 1914 these were not effectively occupied for another decade. Indeed, it was not until 1927 that the inhabitants of French territories in central Africa ever saw a Frenchman!

Africa south of the Sahara was really ruled by Europe for only about thirty years. Each European power followed different policies in ruling its colonies. Yet, one attitude remained common to them all--the attitude that Africans were somehow inferior to Europeans. Such a view was, for example, expressed quite simply by a British businessman in 1924:

I am certain...

Arthur N. Cook, British Enterprise in Nigeria.
Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press,
1943. p. 263.

...start on him.

Such an attitude could not help but influence the type of government, education and economic opportunities that the colonial powers offered their African subjects.

The British policy has usually been described as one of indirect rule. This was a policy of giving token authority to the local chiefs while real power was exercised by the colonial governor and his staff often through the local chiefs. The reasons for such a policy seemed logical to the British:

In regions where...

Arthur N. Cook, British Enterprise in Nigeria.
Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press,
1943. p. 179.

...peace amongst themselves.

As a result, British policy in the Gold Coast, Nigeria and most other large colonies tried to use already established local chiefs as much as possible. In the 1920's, they decided that:

Chiefs shall, under...

Monica Hunter, Reaction to Conquest. London:
Oxford University Press, 1961. p. 421.

...of their tribes....

Nevertheless, the British government and its agents remained supreme in every instance.

The French policy was one of "assimilation." It was based on the assumption that Africans could become French citizens equal to the best European Frenchmen. To stimulate this assimilation the French governed their colonies by a strict legal code drawn up in Paris and administered by French military authorities. In their colonial schools, the elementary reading book began: "Nous Peres les Gaulois...." (Our fathers, the Gauls...) and the transmission of French culture was one of its major objectives. In time black Africans won election to France's national assembly and some even served in the cabinets of its premiers. Thus, while the British policies supposedly aimed to train the inhabitants of their colonies for eventual self-rule, the French sought to incorporate their subjects into one great French community.

The policies of the Portuguese and Belgians were much different. Until 1908 Leopold owned the Congo Free State as a private reserve. He considered it primarily as a source of income and to this end he leased to private companies the rights to work certain mines or gather certain forest products. In that year, however, after an extensive and shocking expose of the mistreatment of the Congolese by agents of these companies, this colony was taken away from him by the Belgian government. In the years that followed the Belgian government administered the affairs of the Congo concentrating primarily on eradicating disease, building railroads and providing a simple elementary school education for its inhabitants.

The Portuguese policy was described in 1939 as one that:

...has been and...

James Duffy, Portugal In Africa. Baltimore: Penguin
Books, Inc., 1962. pp. 162-163.

...the (Portuguese) community.

It, too was described as a policy of assimilation, one dedicated to making the African a member of the Portuguese nation. To this end, Portugal followed policies designed to

"inspire in the...

James Duffy, Portugal In Africa. Baltimore:
Penguin Books, Inc., 1962. p. 182.

...laziness and depravity..."

in order to develop the territories in which he lived. Its officials said:

The state, not...

James Duffy, Portugal In Africa. Baltimore:
Penguin Books, Inc., 1962. p. 132.

...themselves through work....

The policies followed by these and other European colonial powers in Africa had a great impact on the peoples of Africa. Colonial boundaries often had little relationship to their own territories or the areas in which their languages were spoken. In many instances peoples of diverse cultures and often hostile to each other were combined within the same colony; in other instances a single people found their territory divided by the boundaries of two, three and sometimes even four separate colonies, each administered by a different European nation. But, European control affected Africans in other ways, too.

Summary and Conclusion

Africans lived under European domination for less than half a century. Little changed in Africa as an immediate result of the Berlin conference or the drawing of new boundaries that resulted. For, in spite of their claims European nations had neither the money, military power, governmental personnel nor means of communication to make their influence felt right away. In the years between 1885 and 1914 Africans had little concern about the European movement to take over their lands; indeed, many of them openly invited or participated in this partition. Except for the Congo and a few other areas, life proceeded as it traditionally had for many years.

It was only in the twenties that Africans en mass began to feel the real impact of European partition and imperial control. Only with the enforcement of European laws, the introduction of new ways of doing things and new organizations, machines, standards of conduct and customs were their lives significantly affected. European imperialism introduced to Africans the technology of the Western world as well as its political movements; having done this, it aroused in them, and especially in their young leaders, a desire to share what they believed were the most beneficial features of this way of life. European imperialism also altered and otherwise affected African life at every level. Indeed, although Europe's domination of Africa south of the Sahara was relatively short-lived, it played a major role in shaping life in Africa today.

PART II

I

It would be a mistake to think that all Africans submitted quietly to European domination. Some openly resisted--but eventually proved no match for European guns. Both the Zulu and Ashanti "uprisings" were bloody wars. A lesser known revolt occurred in East Africa in 1895:

The scene is...

Colin Gibson, "The Last Uprising," Alan Burton, ed.,
East African Annual 1962-1963. Nairobi: East
African Standard, Ltd., 1963. pp. 65-66.

...fighting soon healed.

II

In 1906 the Hereros of South West Africa rose in rebellion against the German settlers, officials and traders who had occupied their lands, confiscated their herds and subjected them to forced labor. When the German governor, Leutwein, rebuked them for this, their chief replied as follows. As a result the German army launched a campaign that was designed to exterminate the Hereros, a campaign in which over 35,000 Hereros were ruthlessly slaughtered.

I and my...

Louis L. Snyder, The Imperialism Reader. Princeton:
D. Van Nostrand and Company, Inc., 1962. p. 256.

...also (the Hereros) must die.

III

Where Africans did not have the strength or guns to forestall European control, they often resisted in more subtle ways. When the British colonial governor sought to impose certain policies on the Baganda, they resisted thusly:

When he says...

D. Anthony Low and R. Cranford Pratt, Buganda and
British Overrule. London: Oxford University
Press, 1960. p. 32.

...to give offence.

Missionaries and Christianity

Christian missionaries worked in Africa for centuries preceding its partition by Europe. But, they were never so numerous and influential as they were in the years following the European division and occupation of the continent. There were many missionaries representing many faiths, Protestant and Catholic alike. David Livingston was, of course, one of the most prominent of these. But, in West Africa, Mary Slessor was just as famous.

In these puzzling...

Adapted from "Mary Slessor," Nigeria Magazine,
LVIII, 1958. pp. 194-211.

...the new laws....

V

Certainly the work of missionaries touched many Africans. Yet, its affects were not always what the missionaries had intended. Colin Turnbull, who has made extensive visits to Africa and has lived and talked with scores of Africans from every walk of life, discusses this in his book, The Lonely African from which the following excerpts are taken.

Staying with Francois...

Colin M. Turnbull, The Lonely African. New York:
Simon and Schuster, 1968. pp. 137-139.

...wear proper clothes."

VI

Chinua Achebe is a leading African author. Born in Nigeria, he graduated from University College at Ibadan. In 1958 he published his first novel, Things Fall Apart, about the break-up of traditional life in Nigeria under the impact of European influence. The excerpts that follow are from his second novel, No Longer At Ease. Obi Okonkwo, the hero of this second narrative, is an Ibo youth who was selected to study in England and who has returned to try to live up to the expectations of his family and tribe.

After this there...

Chinua Achebe, No Longer At Ease. New York: Astor-
Honor, Inc., 1961. pp. 137-139 and 165-166.

...broken by soldiers....

VII

The following excerpts recount the substance of a conversation between two Africans who were riding a bus in a South African city:

It is amazing...

Monica W. Langa and Archue Mafeje, Case Studies
On the African in South African Industry.
London: Oxford University Press, 1963. pp. 101-102.

...the Christian himself.

VIII

Many black Africans became active in European churches and missions established in their homelands. A few became ministers. Others became assistants to white ministers and church officials. The reason for this, as one black African minister once explained, was that:

Native assistants....had....

Monica Hunter, Reaction to Conquest. London: Oxford
University Press, 1968. p. 562.

...building with them.

Economic Exploitation and Development

When King Leopold II of Belgium secured control of the Congo basin he named it the Congo Free State. Anxious to gain as much wealth as possible from it, he allowed traders, planters and mining companies, for a fee, to operate in its interior. Many moved in quickly and organized the inhabitants to produce, gather or collect products that they could sell in Europe or elsewhere for a large profit. One of these products was rubber.

(A Congolese chief reported in 1903:) It used to...

Adapted from Louis L. Snyder, The Imperialism Reader.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand and Company, Inc., 1962.
p. 254

and

T. Walter Wallbank, Documents on Modern Africa.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1964.
pp. 18-19.

...after their wanderings....

X

In 1890 the Southern Presbyterian Church sent several missionaries to establish a mission in the southeastern part of the Congo Free State. One of them was a "colored man from Virginia," R. W. Sheppard. Sheppard avidly explored the region around the mission making discoveries of such importance he was made a member of the famous Royal Geographical Society. He also made other kinds of discoveries. In 1892 he wrote:

Just after leaving...

D. C. Rankin, "Atrocities in the Kongo Free State,"
The Independent, February 1900. pp. 304-305.

...eighty-one in all.

XI

In 1904 a British missionary described conditions in the Congo Free State near Stanley Pool:

...As I traversed...

E. D. Morel, Red Rubber. New York: The Nassau
Press, 1906. p. 69.

...the rubber tax.

XII

In 1908 an American traveller visited the French-occupied parts of the Congo basin and described what he observed:

Who is to...

Louis L. Snyder, The Imperialism Reader.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand and Company,
Inc., 1962. pp. 256-257.

...life upon them.

WEST AFRICAN PROGRESS
(chart)

Adapted from J. D. Fage, An Introduction to the
History of West Africa. Cambridge: University
Press, 1955. p. 198.

Transportation

The improvement of transportation in Africa was a major concern of many European governments. Considerable efforts were made to construct railroads in both western and eastern Africa. The following selections refer to Uganda.

Even as I...

Zoe Marsh, ed., East Africa Through Contemporary Records. Cambridge: University Press, 1961.
pp. 149-151.

...boats and steamers.

Before we had...

Zoe Marsh, ed., East Africa Through Contemporary Records. Cambridge: University Press, 1961.
pp. 148-149.

...of their salvation.

MAJOR RAILROADS -- 1960



Education

Europeans also established schools in most African territories. Some were government directed but many were sponsored by missionary organizations. Western-type education soon became an important part of the lives of many young Africans. Mongo Beti's novel--Mission to Kala--is the story of a young man of the Southern Cameroons and the ways in which education affect the lives of people of this region. At one point, Modze reflects on the way schooling affected many African children:

Fathers used to...

Mongo Beti, Mission to Kala. New York: Humanities Press, 1966. p. 165.

...That was us. Remember?

XV

PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION OVER 15 WHO
CAN READ AND WRITE AT LEAST
ONE LANGUAGE -- 1960 (est.)

(chart)

Adapted from "The New Africa" chart published
by the Civic Education Service, Washington,
D.C. 1967.

XVI

Few Africans used or needed money before the arrival of Europeans. But European colonial governments require them to pay a certain amount of taxes each year--in money. So they had to find a job that paid wages. In time, Africans began to earn and accumulate more money than was needed to pay taxes. A British radio broadcast in 1944 took note of this problem:

For years we...

Taken from an account of a B.B.C. "Calling East
Africa" program which appeared in East Africa
and Rhodesia. July 20, 1944. p. 939.

....tempted to spend....

Land and Labor

A British report on problems of land ownership in African lands was issued during World War I. It said in part:

At present, with...

George Shipperson and Thomas Price. Independent Africa. Edinburgh: The University Press, 1958. p. 199.

...crops or trees.

XVIII

On December 12, 1963, a special paper was issued in Nairobi, Kenya in honor of Kenya's "uhuru"--freedom. In it, the editor wrote a long article entitled "The Big Land Grab--How Kenyans Lost Their Land." He said, in part:

The British came...

Douglas Rodgers, "The Big Land Grab--How Kenyans Lost Their Land." Pan Africa--Kenya Uhuru Souvenir. December 12, 1963. pp. 49 and 53.

...--along with it....

XIX

Cyprian Ekwensi, in his novel, People of the City, describes the life of a young crime reporter and band leader in a large West African City in the early 1950's. At one point in the story, the following observation is made:

The daily papers...

Cyprian Ekwensi, People of the City. London: Heinemann, 1963. p. 92.

...squalid and slummy.

Africans were often recruited as laborers in mines or on construction gangs. In order to work at these jobs they had to live frequently but not always, with their families in company-built housing areas called compounds. One of these belonging to the Rhodesian Railways was described in 1945:

In its heyday...

Richard Gray, The Two Nations. London: Oxford University Press, 1962. p. 254.

...has originated here.

XXI

A

Africans frequently moved around in the lands south of the Sahara for centuries before Europe assumed control of this region. They continued to do so even after new political boundaries were established. But the character of this movement and especially the reasons for moving and the results changed considerably in the years after 1900.

In...February 1939,...

Robert Delavignette, Freedom and Authority In French West Africa. London: Oxford University Press, 1950. p. 39.

...the European way.

B

G. was born...

Monica W. Langa and Archue Mafeje, Case Studies On The African in South African Industry. London: Oxford University Press, 1963. p. 39.

...is the heir.

C

Whereas the African...

"Effects of Migratory Labor," Progress. June 1968. p. 4.

...longer than that....

Social Regulations

R. Mugo Gatheru, in his autobiography Child of Two Worlds, described many aspects of life in Kenya under British Colonial rule. One aspect of this life was the kipande system.

The Kipande system...

R. Mungo Gatheru, Child of Two Worlds. Garden City: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1965. p. 90.

...imprisoned or both....

XXIII

Todd Matshikiza of the Republic of South Africa wrote the following anecdote about life in this country. It first appeared in the African magazine, Drum.

Me and a...

Langston Hughes, ed., Poems From Black Africa.
Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1968.
p. 71.

...a laughing matter.

Summary and Conclusions

The following is an excerpt from an article by Stuart Cloete that appeared in U.S. News and World Report, August 1, 1960.

...it was colonialism...

Stuart Cloete, "Black Africa's Future--Back to the
Jungle," U.S. News & World Report. XLIX,
August 1, 1960. p. 55.

...had brought security.

XXV

In 1960 Patrice Lumumba, Prime Minister of the newly independent nation of The Congo, made the following appraisal of European dominion of his nation:

Our lot was...

T. Walter Wallbank, Documents on Modern Africa.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc.,
1964. pp. 131-132.

...have profoundly suffered....

XXVI

J. Freire d'Andrade was, in 1961, a foreign office official in the Portuguese government. In that year, he asked:

Why are we...

"Is Africa Ready for Independence." Africa Today.
April 1961. p. 7.

...own eyes today?

XXVII

In 1961, before he became the first president of independent Zambia, Kenneth Kaunda spoke his views on the impact of European colonialism in Africa.

...Well, take Northern...

"Is Africa Ready for Independence," Africa Today.
April 1961. p. 6.

...of 6,000,000 Africans....

UNIT V

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE

52a

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE

Before World War II, practically every inch of Africa south of the Sahara was ruled by European countries. Today, this same continent consists almost entirely of free and independent nations. In just a little more than ten years, thirty-seven new nations sprang up where there were only colonies before. This swift change is one of the most dramatic in all history.

By the end of World War II there were only two independent nations in all of Africa. Ethiopia, the modern descendent of ancient Abyssinia and Axum, had been a sovereign nation since before the birth of Christ. Haile Selassie, the present emperor, still traces his ancestry to Biblical times and points proudly to his country's Coptic Church as one of the oldest Christian churches in existence.

The other nation was Liberia. This country was first established as a sanctuary for freed slaves from the United States in the early 1800's. With American assistance, Liberia became an independent nation in 1847 and remained so ever since. For all practical purposes, however, these were the only independent nations on the entire African continent until after 1950!

There were a few other African colonies that by 1950 had achieved a certain amount of self-government but still remained part of larger European colonial empires. The Union of South Africa--a union of several Boer states and British colonies near the Cape of Good Hope--was one of these. In 1910 it had been granted internal self-rule and became a self-governing dominion within the British Commonwealth of Nations. But it still acknowledged loyalty to and the supremacy of the British crown, especially in foreign affairs. Fifty-one years later this nation withdrew from the Commonwealth altogether over a dispute growing out of its policies of racial separation.

Egypt, although sovereign in name since 1922, was in fact under the very strong influence of the British and other Europeans interested in the Suez Canal until the early-1950's. Between 1950 and 1956 almost all the other nations lying along the northern fringes of the Sahara also became independent. Libya led the way in 1952 followed shortly thereafter by Tunisia and in 1956 by Morocco and the Sudan. Algeria did not become self-governing until 1962.

Independence Comes to West Africa

Independence came to the nations south of the Sahara in a very dramatic and rapid-fire fashion. The first colonies there to become independent were those in West Africa. The world watched intently as the first black African nation to achieve self government in modern times, the former British colony of the Gold Coast, became independent Ghana on March 6, 1957.

Representatives of fifty-six nations including Russia, China and the United States were present at the midnight ceremonies in Accra. The British Union Jack was lowered and a new flag of red, yellow and green with a black star in the center rose in its place. Brilliantly robed crowds danced wildly to jazz music and African drums in the streets of the capital. In a nearby marble hall in one of the large modern buildings built especially to herald the event, Ghana's new President Kwame Nkrumah tapped a two-step with the Dutchess of Kent, the emissary of Britain's Queen Elizabeth II.

Inhabitants of France's West African colonies did not let this event go by unnoticed. Nationalists had been agitating for the independence of these countries for many years. Houphouet-Boigny of the Ivory Coast had vigorously supported a French law giving internal government to the colonies. When General Charles DeGaulle came to power in France in 1958, a new Constitution came with him which gave France's colonies in West and Equatorial Africa a choice between complete independence or self-government within a French Community of nations similar to the British Commonwealth.

In elections in September of that same year all but one of these colonies chose self-government within the French Community. Only Guinea, under the rather radical leadership of Sekou Toure, decided on immediate independence. Unfortunately this decision greatly offended the French who always considered their colonial policy of assimilation to be the most intelligent of all colonial policies. When their colonial administrators and armed forces left the colony just before independence day, they took everything they had brought with them--including door knobs, light switches and light bulbs. Deep bitterness resulted--on both sides.

The Year of Independence

Seventeen sub-Saharan nations became independent in 1960. The idea of a French community of nations proved so impractical that by November of that year those colonies which had elected to join such an organization--thirteen in number--found themselves completely independent. Cameroun, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Congo Republic (with its capital at Brazzaville), Dahomey, Gabon, the Ivory Coast, Mali, Mauritania, the Malagasy Republic (the island of Madagascar), Niger, Senegal and Upper Volta thus joined the rapidly growing list of self-governing African nations.

Four other nations also achieved independence that same year. One of these was Togo, originally a German colony but in the years after World War II administered by France as a United Nations Trusteeship.

Another was Nigeria. Until October 1960 each of the newly independent African nations had become unified as a complete nation under one central government. Nigeria, however, was established as a federation. Because of the strongly sectional loyalties and rivalries of the Moslem North, Yoruba West and Ibo East, British and Nigerian leaders planned together for several years to establish a workable central government. As a result of this planning the switch from colony to nation on October 11 was smooth and without incident.

This was not so in the case of the former Belgian Congo, which had been given independence several months earlier. By 1960 the Belgians found they simply could not control the rising tide of inter-tribal warfare and nationalism which was sweeping the colony. Yet, they were greatly concerned about the valuable mineral resources there. So, they invited a group of Congolese leaders representing some of the different communities in the country to a conference in Belgium to discuss eventual independence. Once there the Congolese unanimously and forcefully demanded full and immediate independence. The Belgians were quite unprepared for such a demand but, unwilling to fight and force a slower break and unable to keep internal peace, they gave in.

Elections for a new Congolese government were held in May 1960. So many different groups ran candidates for office that no one party won a majority and, for awhile, there was considerable confusion and indecision. However, Patrice Lumumba, a nationalist who believed that a single nation could be created out of all the competing factions, eventually emerged as Prime Minister, while his rival, Joseph Kasavubu, was named President. But these elections caused considerable unrest among those who favored either some type of federation of the different regions of the country or complete and total independence for each area.

It was in this atmosphere of uncertainty that Belgium's King Boudouin arrived in the Congo for the independence day celebration. He was rudely received. On the drive from the airport, a Congolese nationalist grabbed his sword and waved it victoriously in the air. Later, in Parliament, the king conferred a royal honor on Lumumba only to have Lumumba rise and criticize him in sharp tones as the oppressor of the Congolese people. On this jarring note, the Democratic Republic of Congo--with its capital at Kinshasa, the former Leopoldville--was born on June 30, 1960. Within a month bloody inter-tribal and anti-white warfare broke out as the Congolese army mutinied and the country was plunged into months of killing, destruction and violence.

The very next day after the Congo became independent, Somalia joined the growing list of free African nations after efforts that were as peaceful as the Congo's were chaotic. After the defeat of Italy in World War II, Italian Somaliland had become a United Nations Trust Territory. In 1950, the United Nations promised independence in ten years and turned the territory back over to the Italians who began an ambitious program to prepare the Somali for self-government. By 1956 the Somali were completely in charge of most domestic affairs. Then, when Britain freed her part of Somaliland the Italians did likewise and the two parts were united in 1960 under one government as the Somali Republic.

Two more smooth transitions to freedom occurred in West Africa in 1961 and 1965 when Sierra Leone and Gambia achieved self-government from Britain. But the process was not so easy in East Africa.

Independence Comes to East Africa

Tanganyika, was the first African territory to achieve independence in East Africa. Under the leadership of Julius Nyerere, self-government was officially proclaimed on December 9, 1961. Britain's Prince Philip was present for the joyous celebrations in the oceanside capital of Dar es Salaam. In April 1964 Tanganyika merged with the island nation of Zanzibar which had established itself as an independent republic after a revolt had overthrown the ruling Sultan the preceding year. The new nation was renamed Tanzania and has come to serve as a model of unity and national development in East Africa.

However, there was little unity in Kenya, Tanzania's more prosperous neighbor to the north. There, a bloody, eight-year uprising of an African secret society known as the Mau Mau terrorized the countryside and murdered the

thousands of Africans and a few Europeans during the 1950's. The presence of many European settlers in the White Highlands and competition between the Kikuyu, Embu, Meru, Luo and other peoples also added to the turmoil in the colony. Eventually, in December 1963, Kenya was made a dominion within the British Commonwealth with Jomo Kenyatta as its Prime Minister. The next year Kenya became a full-fledged republic and Kenyatta was chosen to be its first President.

Similar rivalries between the Ganda and other peoples in Uganda had held up Uganda's drive for freedom from Britain for several years. But in 1962, the Kabaka (king) of Buganda, Edward Mutesa, won the struggle and a majority of political power was won by the Uganda Peoples Congress. Mutesa was selected President and Milton Obote was named Prime Minister. On October 9, 1962 Uganda became independent and in March 1966 Obote seized complete power by outsting the kabaka.

Belgium's last remaining African possessions also became independent in 1962. Ruandi-Urundi, a small territory between the former Belgian Congo and British Tanganyika, was acquired by Belgium during World War I. It continued to be administered by the Belgians as a League of Nations Mandate after 1923 and as a United Nations Trusteeship after 1946. Violent clashes between the aristocratic, ruling Watusi and the Bahutu peoples (who comprised over 80% of the population) erupted in the late 1950's, but by 1962 the territory had been somewhat pacified. Two nations were created--Rwanda, the most densely populated nation in Africa, and Burundi. Both are small, about the size of Maryland. Rwanda was established as a republic but Burundi became independent as a monarchy and continues to exist as such.

Independence in Southern Africa

In 1953 Britain had united under one government three of its southern colonies--Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The inhabitants of the latter two, however, deeply resented the white-dominated rule from Southern Rhodesia and in 1963 withdrew from the federation. On July 6, 1964 Dr. H. Kamuzu Banda became the first President of independent Malawi, the old colony of Nyasaland while Kenneth Kaunda became the President of Zambia--formerly Northern Rhodesia.

Southern Rhodesia remained within the British empire for two more years until, on November 11, 1965 it declared its independence from Britain because of British criticism of its policies of white supremacy; although it has a population of over 4,500,000 black Africans its 220,000 whites completely control all aspects of life. Although few nations in the world have recognized this move and the United Nations has authorized an embargo against it, Rhodesia still considers itself an independent nation.

In 1966 the former British protectorates of Bechuanaland and Basutoland became independent within four days of each other. These former colonies took the names of Botswana and Lesotho respectively. The Dutchess of Kent and a bagpipe band of the Irish Guards helped Botswana celebrate its new status in colorful, noisy midnight festivities that were marred only by a blinding sand storm out of the Kalahari Desert. Two years later, on September 1, 1968,

Swaziland also gained its freedom. All three of these new nations are completely surrounded by nations whose governments are controlled by whites and are completely dependent upon these governments for their economic and political well-being.

Summary

The newest independent nation in Africa south of the Sahara is Equatorial Guinea--the former Spanish colony of Fernando Po^o and Rio Muni. It won its freedom in October of 1968. And the French colony of French Somaliland has even won a limited measure of self government; its new name--the French Dependency of the Afars and Issas--was selected to dramatize its new status.

Today there are thirty-seven independent nations in Africa south of the Sahara. At the end of World War II there were only two. Today more than 220,000,000 Africans are self-governing. In 1956 a mere 20,000,000 lived in free nations.

Yet not all Africans live in their own sovereign nations today. Portugal still controls the lives of some 14,000,000 Africans living in Angola, Mozambique, Cabinda and several other tiny colonies scattered along Africa's Atlantic coast. Spain and France, too, continue to administer several small dependencies in this region. In spite of the fact that most Africans now live under their own government, some 2% still live under colonial rule. Even within the independent nations of Rhodesia and South Africa there are large majorities of black Africans who do not have any significant voice in their governments.

The independence movement in Africa south of the Sahara is not yet complete.

PART II

Another Fine Gift from Africa

The Governor of...

West Africa. July 6, 1940. p. 6.

...made quite spontaneously.

War is Helping Industrialization in East Africa

A measure of...

West Africa. November 2, 1940. p. 7.

...for the troops.

Local Industry in War

With a European...

West Africa. November 2, 1940. p. 7.

...to complicated machinery.

African Soldiers in the Middle East

The Middle East...

Gold Coast Independent. November 21, 1942. p. 240.

...over their tribesmen.

Gold Coast Regiment...

Ashanti Pioneer. October 15, 1964.

...Private Akantien Grunshi.

Africans, The Victory March, and the War Honors

To the Editors...

West Africa. January 17, 1920. p. 5.

...(Victor Allen)

African Doctors in the Forces

According to the...

Gold Coast Independent. November 7, 1942. p. 231.

...to inquire into.

....In a recent...

From an Editorial in the Gold Coast Independent.
July 11, 1942. p. 196.

...been in vain.

John Chilembwe, an African from Nyasaland, wrote a letter to the Nyasaland Times during World War II in which he expressed what he believed were the feelings of his countrymen about participating in World War II:

We understand that...

George Shipperson and Thomas Price, Independent Africa.. Edinburgh: The University Press, 1958, pp. 234-235.

...is not theirs....

The following is an excerpt of a speech delivered in the British House of Lords in July 1944.

Demobilization of East...

"East African Demobilization and Housing: House of Lords Debate Initiated by Lord Rennell,"
East Africa and Rhodesia. July 27, 1944.
pp. 956-957.

...rest of Africa....

Francis Obika, an African, described what it was like for many African soldiers who fought in World War II to return to their homes.

On the heels...

Peggy Rutherford, African Voices. New York: The Vanguard Press, Inc., 1968. pp. 163-164.

....What a vengeance!

Although Kisimi Kamra is the fictional hero of William Conton's novel The African, his experiences are typical of those of thousands of Africans who were sent to Europe to secure advanced education. In the following excerpt, Kisimi describes the momentous discovery that marked his arrival aboard a steamer at Liverpool in England.

Liverpool next day...

William Conton, The African. New York: Humanities Press, 1966. pp. 45-46.

...and grinned back....

Africans were always aware of the great difference between their earnings and those of European workers. The much better living conditions of Europeans was readily apparent in every aspect of life. Typical African comments about this situation, in the early 1950's were:

(Diagram)

The African Drum. April 1951. p. 25.

In 1960, George H. T. Kimble, a geographer, published a two-volume work on tropical Africa. In describing working and living conditions of the Africans, he pointed out that:

...Consider, for instance,...

George H. T. Kimble, Tropical Africa. Garden City: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1960. pp. 599-600.

...month to \$150.

Child of Two Worlds is the life story of R. Mugo Gatheru, a Kikuyu, who left his village to go first to Nairobi, then to India, England and the United States in quest of an education. The following excerpt describes conditions in British controlled Kenya in the late 1940's.

I discovered to...

R. Mungo Gatheru, Child of Two Worlds. Garden City: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1965. pp. 78-79.

...confusingly vicious circle.

AVERAGE MONTHLY CASH WAGES OF MINE EMPLOYEES IN NORTHERN RHODESIA

(Chart)

Adapted from "Review of Economic Activity in Africa 1950-1954," Supplement to World Economic Report 1953-54. New York: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 1955, p. 58.

NUMBER IN THE CIVIL SERVICE
GOLD COAST (GHANA)
(Chart)

George Kimble, Tropical Africa. Garden City:
Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1960. p. 355.

In looking back on British colonial policy for Kenya, a Kenyan newspaper editor wrote in 1963:

...The standards of...

Douglas Rodgers, "The Big Land Grab--How Kenyans
Lost Their Land," Pan Africa--Kenya Uhuru
Souvenir. December 12, 1963. p. 57.

...a British university.

GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES ON EDUCATION
(Chart)

Richard Gray, The Two Nations. London: Oxford
University Press, 1962. p. 133.

Kenneth Kaunda, in his book, Zambia Shall be Free, described how he often addressed meetings of his countrymen in his campaign to achieve Zambia's independence:

This was the...

Kenneth Kaunda, Zambia Shall Be Free--An Autobiography.
New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1963. pp. 41-42.

...Rhodesia African Congress.

PART III

In 1919 a Pan-African Congress met for the second time in history. There were over fifty delegates including nine from Africa. An American Negro, W. E. Burghardt DuBois, one of the founders of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, was a leader of the Congress. During the meeting, the following resolutions were adopted:

The Negroes of...

Hans Kohn and Wallace Sokolsky, eds., African
Nationalism In the Twentieth Century.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc.,
1965. pp. 125-126.

...of the Africans....

XIII

A year after the adoption of the preceding resolutions, the Universal Negro Improvement Association met in New York City and prepared a Declaration of Rights of Negro Peoples of the World. It read, in part:

We complain:...

T. Walter Wallbank, Documents on Modern Africa.
Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc.,
1964. pp. 31-32.

...of all peoples....

Many Africans deeply resented European control of their lives and their lands. In most instances they were powerless to resist, however. Yet their resentment found expression in other ways, as, for example, in poetry. Benedict W. Vilakazi, a South African, penned the following lines after World War I:

"Wait just a...

Jacob Drachler, Ed., African Heritage. New York:
Collier Books, 1964. p. 81.

...the homeless Blacks.

In 1961 some Nigerian students studying in the United States were interviewed by a journalist and a report of the interview published in The New Republic.

We begrudge every...

Paul Conklin, "We Don't Want to Be Won," The New Republic. CXLIV, February 20, 1961, p. 17.

...a white man.

Peter Abrahams, author of such famous novels as Mine Boy, was eventually forced to flee his homeland, South Africa, because of his criticism of the government's policy of racial segregation--apartheid. In his book Tell Freedom, he describes how this policy affected him and his black countrymen in the 1930's.

RESERVED FOR EUROPEANS ONLY

Because of that...

Peter Abrahams, Tell Freedom. New York: Alfred A.
Knopf, Inc., 1954. pp. 369-370.

...dealings with us....

Kenneth Kaunda described in 1960 the reasons why Africans wanted independence from European control. He said, in part:

I come from...

Kenneth Kaunda, "Free-dom Now!" Africa Today.
May 1960. p. 11.

...order without oppos'tion....

For years, Dr. James Aggrey was a professor in a small college in North Carolina. Eventually, however, he went to Africa where he joined the faculty of a college in the British colony of the Gold Coast--today's Ghana. He was an ardent advocate of African independence from European control. He used stories like the following to stimulate Africans toward this goal.

A certain man...

Hans Kohn and Wallace Sokolsky, eds., African Nationalism In the Twentieth Century. Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1965. pp. 129-130.

...food of chickens!

Other Africans, in poem and story, sought to stimulate an African nationalism that stressed pride in blackness-negritude. One such poet was Leon Damas.

The White will...

Gerald Moore, ed., Seven African Writers. London: Oxford University Press, 1962. p. xx.

...life is negro

Roland Tombekai Dempster is a Liberian poet who penned the following lines:

Is this Africa...

Langston Hughes, ed., Poems From Black Africa.
Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1968.
pp. 79-80.

...washed in tears.

The following is a hymn of the Mau Mau, a Kikuyu movement that terrorized Kenya in the mid-1950's and which cost the lives of an estimated 13,000 Africans, 95 whites and 26 Asians:

O God, we...

Joseph Mwangi Kariuki, Mau Mau Detainee. London:
Oxford University Press, 1963.

...govern themselves alone.

PART IV

LEADERS FOR AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE

Nnamdi Azikiwi

Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwi, first Governor-General of independent Nigeria and a founder of his country's independence movement, was born in 1904. His father, an Ibo from the Eastern Region, was clerk in a Nigerian army regiment.

He received his primary and secondary school education at mission schools and worked for four years as a Treasury Department clerk in Lagos. In 1925 he stowed away on a ship bound for the United States where he continued his education at Howard and Lincoln Universities and the University of Pennsylvania. He taught history and government at Lincoln University, lived in London in 1934 (where he published his first book, Liberia in World Affairs), and then proceeded to the Gold Coast where he edited a newspaper. Soon he was charged and convicted of sedition for publishing articles not approved by the Colonial Administration, but was later acquitted following a successful appeal. Returning to Nigeria in 1937, he set up a chain of successful newspapers which he used to fight against British colonialism.

During the 1940's he helped found and lead a political party, the National Council of Nigeria and the Cameroons, which called for Nigerian independence and rights for the working man. Dr. Azikiwi became Governor-General when Nigeria became independent in 1960, and in 1963--when Nigeria became a republic--he became its first president.

Hastings Kamuzu Banda

Dr. H. Kamuzu Banda returned to Malawi (then Nyasaland) in 1958 after 40 years absence from his homeland. Six years later, when the country gained independence, he became its first head of state.

Born in 1906, his parents were poor farmers in a remote district. A brilliant student, he completed all the courses available in the mission schools of his district by the time he was thirteen. Still hungering for an education, he set out to walk the thousand miles to the Union of South Africa without money, spare clothes or identification. On his way, he worked in a native hospital and, for eight years, in the South African gold fields. He attended night school and saved his money, finally earning his passage to the United States.

He studied at four American universities, becoming a Doctor of Medicine in 1937. He then travelled to England where he obtained an additional diploma from the University of Edinburgh. Then followed years of practice as a rich and fashionable physician in England. Many Africans studying in England found their way to his home, and through them Dr. Banda established a political following in his distant homeland. To be nearer political happenings in Africa,

he moved to the Gold Coast in 1953, and in 1958 when there was political unrest in Nyasaland, he returned to take over the African National Congress, the political party working most energetically for independence. The Party was banned by the authorities in 1959 because of rioting and an alleged plot against the government. Dr. Banda was put in prison for six months when the government declared his presence dangerous to the security of the territory. After his release, he formed a new political organization which helped Nyasaland gain full independence from Britain in 1964.

Felix Houphouet-Boigny

Felix Houphouet-Boigny, first President of the Ivory Coast, led his nation to independence in 1960 after a colorful career in African and French politics.

He was born in 1905, the son of a prosperous planter and the descendent of a line of traditional tribal chiefs. Educated in local schools and the Medical School of Dakar in Senegal, he became a medical assistant in 1925 and practiced this profession for fifteen years. In 1940 he became a planter and chief of his home district. Here he encountered the preferred treatment given European planters at the expense of Africans. He vigorously protested French policies of racial discrimination and forced African labor. He formed the Democratic Party of the Ivory Coast and was elected to the French Constituent Assembly, meeting in Paris, in 1945.

Dismayed at post-World War II French policies toward Africa, he joined with other leaders of French African colonies to form the African Democratic Rally--a movement whose aim was to "free Africa of her colonial yoke." In November, 1946, he was elected to the French National Assembly from the Ivory Coast and later served as a cabinet minister in several French governments. He also represented France in the United Nations. When the Ivory Coast became partially independent in 1958, he helped influence most of his countrymen to vote to maintain close ties with France. As President of the Ivory Coast, he has continued these policies.

Kenneth Kaunda

Kenneth Kaunda became Zambia's first Prime Minister when the country gained internal self-government in 1964, and later, when Zambia became a fully-independent republic, he became its first president.

He was born in 1924 at a Church of Scotland mission in what was then called Northern Rhodesia. His Nyasa father was an ordained priest who became a teacher and his mother was one of the first African women teachers in the territory. He received his early school education locally, and became a teacher. He taught in the Rhodesias and Tanganyika before returning to Northern Rhodesia as an interpreter and welfare worker. After several bitter encounters with racial discrimination, he joined the African National Congress

--a political party dedicated to ending racial injustice and to gaining independence for African states. His ability was soon recognized in the party, which elected him Secretary-General. It was during this period that Kaunda formulated his political creed--faith in the common man and belief in non-violence, based on a study of the life of Gandhi and a visit to India. But it was also at this time that the Rhodesian government put him in jail for two months for distributing political literature. He again received a nine-month jail sentence in 1958 for his political activities, but his imprisonment made him a national and international hero.

A skilled debater and the author of several books on African politics, he has received several awards from foreign governments, and he was awarded an honorary Doctor of Humane Letters Degree from Fordham University when he visited the United States in 1961.

Jomo Kenyatta

Jomo Kenyatta, for 40 years the symbol of African nationalism on the continent, became the first Prime Minister of independent Kenya on December 11, 1963.

He was born the son of a poor Kikuyu farmer in 1891, and received his early education at a Church of Scotland mission school. In 1929 he made his first visit to England (then ruler of Kenya) to plead for the return of land taken from the Kenyans by the British. He was not successful. So, he began extensive travels in Europe, studying for a time in the Soviet Union. He took a post-graduate course in anthropology at the London School of Economics in 1936 and two years later published Facing Mount Kenya, a widely read and respected study of his people. His scholarship has received notable recognition in Europe and America.

Returning to Kenya after the Second World War, he became one of the organizers and leaders of the Kenya African Union, a political organization opposed to British colonial rule. In 1953, Kenyatta was sentenced to seven years imprisonment by the British for his alleged involvement with the Mau Mau terrorist organization. He was still detained by the British when, in 1960, he was elected president of the Kenya Africa National Union--the current majority political party in Kenya. The British, threatened by domestic violence and adverse world opinion, released him in 1961. When in 1964 Kenya became a Republic, Jomo Kenyatta was elected its first President.

Patrice Lumumba

Patrice Lumumba, first Prime Minister of the Congo Republic and a leader of his country's struggle for independence, was murdered by his political opponents in February 1961.

Born in the Congo in 1925, he attended a Roman Catholic Mission school until the age of fourteen, when he decided--against the wishes of his Catholic father--to transfer to a Protestant school. On graduation, he became a clerk and an assistant postmaster in the Belgians colonial government. After eleven years of excellent service he was convicted of fraud (falsely, he claimed) and imprisoned by the Belgian authorities. Upon his release from prison, he settled in Leopoldville where he established a reputation as a brilliant orator and pamphleteer. He also helped to found in 1957 the Congolese National Movement, a political party whose objective was to take control of public affairs. He represented the Congo at the all-African People's Congress held in Ghana in 1958.

A month after his return, he led 30,000 Congolese on a march to the government offices where they demanded Belgian withdrawal and complete independence without delay. Rioting and extensive bloodshed resulted, and the colonial government responded by promising immediate reforms and speedy independence. On June 30, 1960, the Congo became independent and Lumumba, one of the most popular political figures in the new parliament, became Prime Minister. One of his first moves was to fly to New York and the United Nations, where he eloquently pleaded for United Nations support for his struggling nation. His new government was not very strong, however, and on October 14, the Congolese army seized control of the administration and put Lumumba under house arrest. He escaped, but was recaptured in December and killed under mysterious circumstances two months later.

Albert John Luthuli

Albert John Luthuli, one of Africa's most famous champions of racial equality and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize, died in July 1967, after being struck by a train.

Born in 1898 on a native reserve in South Africa, he was the son of a Congregationalist Mission interpreter and the nephew of the elected chief of the Zulu. He was educated at a local mission school and at Adams College, an American Mission Secondary School. He stayed at Adams College for fifteen years as a teacher before he was asked by the Zulu elders to fill the vacant post of chief. For seventeen years he presided over meetings, courts and beer drinks, helping to maintain the economy and self-respect of his people. As chief, he travelled to India and the United States, and served on various committees and missionary boards in South Africa. His opposition to the apartheid (racial segregation) laws of South Africa led him to join the African National Congress, and he quickly became its President. His non-violent opposition to the government's racial laws resulted in his forced

removal as Zulu Chief and a one-year jail sentence. After his release from jail, he was ordered confined by the government to his own village. He was reluctantly allowed by the South African government to travel to Oslo in 1961 when the Norwegian parliament awarded him the Nobel Prize.

Kwame Nkrumah

When Ghana became independent in 1957, Kwame Nkrumah--its first president--acquired immense prestige and world-wide recognition.

Nkrumah was born in 1909 in a rural province of Ghana (then the Gold Coast). He was a member of the small Nzima tribe and the son of a goldsmith. He received his education at Catholic mission schools and the Government Training College at Accra, where he qualified as a teacher. Saving his money, and with the help of an uncle, he travelled to the United States in 1935 where he enrolled at Lincoln University. He later took graduate degrees in education and philosophy at the University of Pennsylvania, and he taught political science for several years at Lincoln University.

In 1945, he enrolled in the London School of Economics where he earned a Doctor of Laws degree.

In London he became a leader in the West African Students Union, which had as its goal the independence of British colonies in Africa. He returned to his homeland in 1947 to help organize opposition to British rule. Bypassing more cautious political leaders, he united labor unions and youth organizations into a single political party under his leadership. After a series of strikes and bloody political demonstrations, the British imprisoned him. But, the success of his party in the local elections in 1951 forced his release. From 1951 to 1956 he travelled throughout the country making speeches, organizing rallies and building a personal following. His party won large majorities in the 1956 elections and when, in 1957, Ghana achieved independence, Nkrumah became its leader.

Julius Nyerere

Julius Nyerere, President of the United Republic of Tanzania, was born in 1922 to a chief of the Zanaki tribe and his eighteenth wife.

His education began at a Roman Catholic mission school and was later continued at the Government Secondary School at Tabora. In 1943, he enrolled at Makerere College, Uganda, and returned to Tabora two years later with a degree in education. He taught history and biology at a mission secondary school until 1949, when he went to the University of Edinburgh in Scotland to study history, anthropology, political economy and philosophy. Back in his native country in 1952 with a M.A. degree, he resumed teaching school.

He could not, however, restrain his desire for national independence and, in the following year, became president of an organization that was to become the Tanganyika African National Union. As head of this organization he became the leader of the bitter but bloodless struggle for his country's freedom from British rule. His testimony against the severity of the colonial government before the United Nations in 1955 received global publicity, but made him unpopular with the British. He was convicted and fined for "political libel", and his party's newspaper censored.

When Tanganyika became independent in 1961, he became its first Prime Minister, and when Zanzibar joined the union in 1964, he was elected President of the United Republic of Tanzania.

Leopold Senghor

Leopold Senghor, the first President of the former French colony of Senegal, occupies a unique place in the political history of Africa. He has held political power in both his native Senegal and France itself and has won international renown as a poet, writer and scholar.

Born in 1906, his father was a wealthy Catholic in predominantly Moslem Senegal. Senghor was educated in a Catholic Mission school and at a French school in Dakar. Because of his brilliant record, he was sent to the University of Paris where he won the coveted "agregation"--the highest French academic qualification. From 1938 to the outbreak of World War II he taught in France and studied African languages and culture.

Joining the French army at the outbreak of the War, he was captured by the Germans, but helped organize French resistance while still a prisoner of war. After the War he helped write the new French Constitution and served in the French Parliament as representative from Senegal. He represented France in 1955-56 in UNESCO and was a cabinet member in two French governments. Despite his success in French academic and political life, he became an active and leading member of a number of African political parties which urged independence for African territories. He was particularly successful in persuading African writers and intellectuals to take more active roles in politics and to help mobilize support for independence among the people. In January 1959, Senegal became independent and Senghor, as leader (and founder) of its largest political party, became Senegal's first President.

THE ROOTS OF AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE

Ghana's independence celebrations heralded a new day in Africa south of the Sahara. From that day in 1957 onward, independence swept throughout the land like a brush-fire across the savanna. In just ten years over thirty new countries joined the world community of sovereign nations. So rapidly did Africans acquire self-rule that their independence appeared to be a spontaneous achievement. In reality, however, it was merely the climax of a long struggle that began almost as soon as Africa had been partitioned by the Congress of Berlin some seventy-five years earlier.

Self-government south of the Sahara grew out of two things--the rise of African nationalism and events in the world after 1940. The first of these, African nationalism, was unlike the nationalism that helped unify many other nations in the world. It was not a feeling of loyalty to a specific nation as much as it was a feeling of unity based on color, aspirations and history. African nationalism emphasized blackness--negritude--as a way to stress how Africans differed from but were by no means inferior to the inhabitants of the rest of the world, especially Europe. This nationalism attempted to sweep away the world's misunderstanding and ignorance about Africa, its contempt for and patronizing attitudes toward Africans. It stressed the desire of black Africans to live their own lives rather than to ape the ways of Europe.

Although these feelings did not reach major proportions until after World War II, their roots lay deep in Europe's domination of the continent during the preceding half century. Basically the nationalistic movement in Africa's sub-Saharan colonies was a story of aspiring for self-government, for social and economic equality and for the end of European domination. It was a direct result of the very presence of white, European colonial domination.

The Origins of African Nationalism

One of the major roots of African nationalism was western education. At first this was primarily the work of the missionaries who wanted to teach Africans to read so they could understand the Bible and thus become good Christians. Eventually the colonial governments themselves undertook the task of educating their subjects. Once Africans could read, however, they began to read more than just religious literature. They read western novels, newspapers, and speeches. In doing so they found that the nations of Europe and America seemed to put great faith in individual freedom and that they had even fought wars to gain or preserve that freedom. They began to wonder if they, too, couldn't do the same.

Some mission-educated Africans were rewarded for their excellence by being given scholarships to study or travel in Europe or the United States. These opportunities opened their eyes to the western world. Not only did they see evidence of racial prejudice in some countries, but they also came into close contact, as equals, with white students. They saw the democratic process at work in many nations. Yet, on their return home they found it impossible

to secure good paying jobs in government or business because these were reserved for citizens of the colonial power only; they faced discrimination in all areas of life. And, they came to look on their people as backward and ignorant in comparison with those in the western world. As a result they were led to believe progress for Africa could not begin until independence from colonial rule had been achieved. These dissatisfied Africans were the ones who soon became the driving force behind Africa's nationalist movements.

Another source of this nationalism was the operation in Africa of an economic system based on money. Prior to the colonial partition and occupation success in Africa was determined by traditional standards--how many cattle one owned or inherited and so on. This was changed with the introduction of money. Now success was based on how much money one could accumulate. The uneducated chief began to be of less importance than the wealthy but low-born trader. A new group of Africans arose--a moneyed elite--that looked to government and business as a way to success. Since the whites controlled the top posts in the colonial government and economy, these Africans began to long for independence. If they could free their nation from European control, then they could have these top positions and could be the real leaders of their nations. They, too, became leaders of African nationalism.

A third source of African nationalism was the unifying influence of organizations formed by Africans after 1885 to protect and advance their own interests. These organizations were of various kinds and for various purposes. Africans in many colonies formed their own churches where they merged the principles of Christianity with their own long-established traditions. They also formed numerous voluntary aid societies to help those in special need. Workers who had left their homes to seek jobs in some distant city often formed special groups for recreation and welfare purposes. Villagers who produced the same products for sale often united in order to sell these products for the highest price possible. Sometimes government workers, teachers and craftsmen formed labor unions. Soccer clubs, alumni associations, welfare societies and even political groups were also formed. Africans studying overseas even established student associations as a way of keeping in touch with each other and those at home.

These organizations cut across village, tribal and often colonial boundaries. They brought diverse people together in common activities for common purposes. The need to conduct meetings, raise funds and carry out the business of the organization provided opportunities for certain leaders to be heard and seen by thousands of people. Gradually these men built up large personal followings. In time--after World War II--these groups were easily unified into mass movements for independence.

The Influence of World Events

Events outside of Africa also helped bring about independence. Europe took over Africa so quickly and with so few military defeats that most Africans considered Europeans to be invincible and all-powerful. A number of events soon

shattered this myth, however. In 1896 the Ethiopians soundly defeated Italy in a surprisingly quick campaign. Europeans themselves began to question and criticise the wisdom of their attitudes and policies toward Africans and all colonial peoples. World Wars I and II seemed to indicate Europeans couldn't even run their own affairs very well.

World War II was perhaps the most influential of all these events, for it gave great impetus to the development of African nationalism. It did this in a number of ways. Many Africans served in the armies of Britain, France and their allies all over the world. African soldiers fought in the Horn region of Africa, in the North African campaigns, in Italy and against the Japanese in Burma. In so doing they came into contact with different peoples and different ways of life. They were well-fed, well-clothed and reasonably well-paid. Their major purposes, especially in Europe and North Africa, were to kill whites and end imperialism. Many were killed fighting for democracy; others were maimed. These soldiers developed a new awareness of the meaning of independence and of their own abilities to help achieve it.

The war also stimulated the rise of nationalism in Africa itself. Many Africans other than soldiers were involved in the war effort. Some were trained as drivers, mechanics, clerks, technicians and teachers. Others left the villages to take jobs in factories or mines producing war material. They were paid wages for their efforts and in time came to own property such as radios, bicycles, wrist watches and even city houses. When the war ended they, along with the returning soldiers, were not about to give up these luxuries for the routine of village life in the bush.

World War II helped shatter the myth of Europe's all powerful supremacy. France and Belgium were both defeated and conquered by Germany thus considerably lessening their influence over their African colonies. Britain, too, suffered enormous defeats and losses. All of these nations had to call on their African colonies for help. And so weakened were these "powers" that they could not withstand the demands for independence made by their Asian colonies after the war. Within two years after the end of the fighting India, Pakistan, Ceylon and Burma had received their independence from Britain. After several years of bitter warfare Indonesia and French Indo-China also won self-government. The rise of the Cold War led Europe to pay even less attention to what colonies remained.

Even the United Nations charter influenced the nationalist movement in Africa south of the Sahara. Upon the insistence of the United States and in spite of opposition by the colonial powers, it had called for the right of all peoples to freedom and justice. This was reinforced by the Bandung Conference held in Indonesia in 1955 which called for an end to colonialism throughout the world.

World War II and its aftermath showed dramatically that Europe's colonial powers were not at all invincible, that they could not even keep order in their own home and that colonial peoples could, in fact, achieve and handle independence. African nationalists were quick to see these things. As a result, what had started around 1900 as an effort to exult and retain what was special for

Africa and had expanded in the 1930's to include demands for a voice in local government, became after 1946 a noisy clamor for quick and complete independence.

Nationalism and Independence

Prior to 1930 African nationalism was most often expressed through the formation of religious, cultural or social organizations that stressed Africa's cultural uniqueness, through manifestos of various organizations and through occasional strikes or other kinds of civil disturbances. But these were largely unorganized and failed. During the late 1920's and the 1930's African nationalism found increasing expression in African newspapers established especially to promote the cause of freedom--Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwi's papers in the Gold Coast and Nigeria are a good example--as well as in literature and in inter-colonial political associations such as the National Congress of British West Africa. But, although these devices helped some Africans secure a modest voice in their local affairs and stimulated some measure of local pride, they were not successful in winning any large degree of self-government for Africa's colonies.

After 1946, however, the movement mushroomed. New leaders came to the fore. Trade unions and voluntary organizations were united to form political organizations dedicated to independence. Colonial powers responded by pouring millions of dollars into Africa to stem the rising tide of nationalism. New factories, roads, schools and communication facilities were built to show that colonialism could build up "backward" areas, to show it was a "good" thing. But in the long run these improvements only sped up the movement towards independence for they brought the Africans even closer together and thus enabled them to unite in their efforts for freedom.

The events that preceded the Gold Coast's independence provide a good example of how most of Africa's colonies won self-rule. Kwame Nkrumah returned to the Gold Coast in 1947 from England to organize and lead the United Gold Coast Convention party in its move for self-government. By using demonstrations and strikes, he forced the British to establish an all-African Legislative Assembly and an Executive Council with eight ministers chosen from the Assembly and three chosen by the British governor. Nkrumah then organized his own party, the Convention Peoples Party, which undertook a series of strikes and boycotts. For this he and the other leaders of the party were arrested and imprisoned. Nevertheless in the 1951 general elections his party won an overwhelming victory and as a result he was released from prison and asked to form a government. As Prime Minister, though still under British rule, Nkrumah quickly guided the Gold Coast to independence. The celebrations on March 6, 1957 were thus much more than joyous ceremonies; they were in fact a vibrant climax to the years of struggle, agitation and hard work which had made independence a reality.

Conclusion

Independence came to those living in Africa south of the Sahara in just one brief decade. But it was neither sudden nor spontaneous. It was instead the climax of forces that had been slowly building for years. In fact, it grew directly out of the very system that European imperial powers had imposed upon it in the first place.

The colonial system in Africa carried the seeds of its own destruction. It created conditions which enabled Africans to become aware of the outside world and of the ideas of individual liberty, freedom and opportunity and of national self-government. It helped Africans become conscious of their own cultural identity. And through this system Africans became involved in world events that eventually paved the way for their independence and freedom. Little did anyone realize in 1885 that as the partitioners of Africa signed the Treaty of Berlin they were also setting in motion forces that would completely shatter that treaty barely two generations later.